

THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM
OF
JAPAN

Official Agents for the sale of Indian Official Publications.

IN ENGLAND.

- E. A. ARNOLD, 41 & 43, Maddox Street, Bond Street, W., London.
- CONSTABLE & CO., 16, James Street, Haymarket, W., London.
- GRINDLAY & CO., 54, Parliament Street, S. W., London.
- HENRY S. KING & CO., 65, Cornhill, E. C., London.
- P. S. KING & SON, 2 & 4, Great Smith Street, Westminster, S. W., London.
- KEGAN PAUL, TRENCH, TRÜBNER & CO., 43, Gerrard Street, Soho, W., London.
- B. QUARITCH, 15, Piccadilly, W., London.
- B. H. BLACKWELL, 50 & 51, Broad Street, Oxford.
- DEIGHTON BELL & CO., Cambridge. •

ON THE CONTINENT.

- FRIEDLANDER & SOHN, 11, Carlstrasse, Berlin.
- RUDOLF HAUPT, Halle-A.-S., Germany.

- OTTO HARRASSOWITZ, Leipzig.^o
- KARL W. HIERSEMANN, Leipzig.^o
- ERNEST LEROUX, 28, Rue Bonaparte, Paris.
- MARTINUS J. HOFF, The Hague.

IN INDIA.

- HIGGINOTHAM & CO., Madras.
- V. KALYANARAMA IYER & CO., Madras.
- P. R. RAMA IYAR & CO., Madras.
- THACKER, SPINK & CO., Calcutta.
- W. NEWMAN & CO., Calcutta.
- S. K. LAHIRI & CO., Calcutta.
- R. CAMBRAY & CO., Calcutta.
- THACKER & CO. (LD.), Bombay.
- A. J. COMBRIDGE & CO., Bombay.
- CURATOR, Government Central Book Depôt, Bombay.
- D. B. TARAPOREVALA, SONS & CO., Bombay.
- SUNDER PANDURANG, Book seller, etc., Bombay.
- GOPAL NARAYEN & CO., Book sellers, etc., Bombay.
- N. B. MATHUR, N. K. H. Press, Allahabad.

THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

OF

JAPAN

BY

W. H. SHARP, M.A.,

PROFESSOR OF PHILOSOPHY, ELPHINSTONE COLLEGE, BOMBAY.

BOMBAY

PRINTED AT THE GOVERNMENT CENTRAL PRESS

1906

P R E F A C E.

THE materials for the following Report, part of which was composed in attitudes of varying discomfort on the floor of Japanese inns, and the rest during intervals snatched from College or University work at Bombay, have been gathered from three sources : official reports and publications, standard works on Japan, and personal enquiries during a furlough of some months spent in that country in 1904.

Official publications of one kind or another are numerous, but with few exceptions are in Japanese. Under these circumstances a series of pamphlets entitled *Education in Japan*, 1904, and published by the Educational Department for the Exhibition at St. Louis, proved invaluable, as furnishing a number of details, regulations, and time-tables, otherwise only obtainable by laborious processes of translation or interpretation. They do not, however, distinguish between those regulations which are really enforced, those which in practice are not enforced, and those which have only just been enacted. Almost every regulation contains a provision that "under special circumstances" something else may be done, and special circumstances seem as common in Japan as extenuating ones in France. Changes, again, are incessant, not only rules but also functionaries being created or abolished with startling rapidity, so that any account runs the risk of being out of date even before it sees the light.

Next in value are the annual reports of the Minister for Education, an abridged version of which is published in English, the latest available being the report for 1902-3. Unfortunately no copy prior to 1892 could be found, so that it was impossible to study in any detail the history of the first twenty years of modern education in Japan ; and the later reports tend to become increasingly dry and statistical, with less and less explanation of any changes observed or introduced. The Imperial Univer-

sities of Tokyo and Kyoto, and a very few other institutions, also publish English versions of their calendars, or at any rate circulars of information. Almost every school, indeed, of any size issues some sort of calendar, containing its history, regulations, time-tables, the careers of its graduates, plans of its buildings, etc.; and probably every prefectural office has an annual volume dealing with the state of education in the prefecture. But all this mass of information is concealed under the Chinese character. Lastly, some further facts, chiefly statistical have been derived from *Japan in the Beginning of the 20th Century*, published in 1904 by the Department of Agriculture and Commerce, and from an official *Résumé Statistique de l'Empire du Japon*.

Coming now to the enormous array of books on Japan by private authors, it is singular how little information is to be obtained from them on matters educational, compared, for instance, with the amount of space devoted to the subject of *geisha*. Much, however, may be learned from Prof. Chamberlain's *Things Japanese*, from the writings of the late Mr. Lafcadio Hearn, from *The Mikado's Empire* and *Verbeck of Japan* by the Rev. Dr. Griffis, and from the Rev. S. L. Gulick's *Evolution of the Japanese*. Other books from which information has been occasionally drawn are mentioned in the body of the Report. Of the numerous foreign teachers who have served in Japan few seem to have placed any of their experiences on record. Dr. Griffis has described the appearance of the so-called University of Tokyo in its earliest days, as also that of the provincial school which he himself joined; and Mr. Hearn has a couple of interesting papers on school life at Matsue, and Kumamoto, besides many scattered references to educational matters. He may not always be a safe guide, but his papers have been drawn upon freely because they were the only notes of the kind across which I came. Time did not permit me to search the files of the *Japan Mail*, or do more than glance at some volumes of the Transactions of the Asiatic Society of Japan.

In the course of my personal enquiries I travelled over a good deal of Japan, visited nearly 150 institutions of different kinds and grades, and conversed on educational topics with about 250 persons of varying degree, from cabin-boys to statesmen. The same difficulty encounters one almost everywhere. When rules and syllabuses, time-tables and text-books, teaching and examining, inspecting and reporting, all are in Japanese, it is a little difficult for the ignorant outsider to discover what is really going on. It is true that in most of the higher institutions there are persons who speak English well, but elsewhere those who understand that language may be absent for the day, or engaged in class, or may not care to commit themselves to a conversation in it, or, finally, they may not exist at all. One is driven, therefore, to the services of an interpreter, and a qualified interpreter was not at my disposal. The professional guide, who is a necessary evil in Japan, also acts as interpreter; but he is not an educated man, probably does not know very much about his own language, and certainly knows only a little English. Conversation under such circumstances reduces itself to the simplest questions and answers. A few translations were made for me by University students, but were sometimes only slightly more intelligible than the Japanese text, in spite of the assurances of one of these young men that he had worked at his task "most concentrationally."

My instructions having been to study the educational system of Japan with special reference to its bearing on the problems of Indian education, it has been judged convenient to follow in the main the arrangement of the Indian Quinquennial Reports on Education. I have, however, ventured to treat of the foundation before the superstructure, of primary education before collegiate. It is true that the other method might seem peculiarly appropriate in the case of a country where the first part of a house that is built is the roof; nevertheless, considering that primary education is now diffused throughout the whole nation, and absorbs the larger part of the total sum expended on public instruction, it seemed more logical as well as more convenient.

to work from below upwards. The Japanese statistics are taken mainly from the Minister's report for 1902-3; the Indian figures are taken from the Fourth Quinquennial Review and refer to 1901-2. For Japanese technical terms the equivalents which have official sanction have been used. Thus *Fu* and *Ken* are translated by "prefecture," and *Gun* by "rural district". The official at the head of a prefecture is the "local governor". The chief authority of a school or college is the "director," and the term "college" is reserved for the colleges of the Imperial Universities. A hostel attached to a school is called a "dormitory"; and the term "graduation" is applied in Japan, as in America, to the completion of any regular course of instruction, so that there are graduates of primary schools as well as of universities, graduates in wood-carving or acupuncture as much as in law or medicine. Japanese currency has been converted into sterling at the rate of 10 yen to the pound.

Lastly, I have to thank the Educational Department of Tokyo for information, and for a letter of introduction to all the schools of Japan; and a multitude of ladies and gentlemen, Japanese or foreign, for devoting much time and trouble to showing me round their institutions and answering my questions. To correct misconceptions which exist, I may perhaps add that it was no part of my task to make recommendations, or even primarily to criticise, but simply to report.

W. H. SHARP.

BOMBAY, *June* 1905.

TABLE OF CONTENTS.

	Page
Preface	i
CHAPTER I.—HISTORICAL SKETCH OF EDUCATION IN JAPAN.	
1 Divisions of the subject	1
<i>I.—Education in Japan up to 1853.</i>	
2. The beginnings of education	1
3. The Dark Age	2
4. Introduction of Christianity	3
5. Jesuit schools	4
6. Closing of the country	4
7. Revival of Confucianism	5
8. The "Five Relations"	6
9. <i>Bushido</i> , the feudal ethics	6
10. Feudal organization. The <i>samurai</i>	7
11. Other classes	8
12. Schools in the feudal period	8
13. The <i>terakoya</i>	9
14. The <i>samurai</i> schools	10
15. Rigorous character of the training	12
16. The teachers	13
17. Female education	13
18. The re-opening of the country	14
<i>II.—Education in the Transitional Period, 1853-71.</i>	
19. Influence of the Dutch at Nagasaki	16
20. "Dutch learning"	17
21. Entrance of foreign teachers	18
22. Verbeck	18
23. The provision of teachers	19
24. The primitive university of Tokyo	20

TABLE OF CONTENTS.

	Page
25. A provincial school, 1871	21
26. A relic of feudalism	22
27. Other foreign teachers	23
28. Educational influence of Japanese writers	24
29. Fukuzawa	25
30. Abolition of feudalism	26
31. The World-Embassy, 1871	26
<i>III.—Modern Education in Japan since 1872.</i>	
32. Educational Rescript, 1872	28
33. The state of education at the time... ..	29
34. Educational Code of 1872	29
35. German influence on education	30
36. Progress from 1872 to 1884	31
37. Reforms of 1886	32
38. Progress since 1890	33
39. General aims of educational policy... ..	35
40. Education and Government service	36
41. Statistics of recent educational expansion	38
CHAPTER II.—GENERAL OUTLINE OF THE SYSTEM.	
42. Area and population	39
43. Local divisions	39
44. Local administration	40
45. The organization of education	41
46. Classification by management	41
47. Control of private schools	43
48. Grants-in-aid	43
49. Direction and inspection	44
50. Compulsory education	44
51. School buildings	44
52. Discipline	45
53. Academic year	46
54. Institutions for general education	46
55. Limits of age, and length of course	47
56. Primary education	48

TABLE OF CONTENTS.

vii

	Page
57. Secondary education	49
58. Higher schools	49
59. Universities	50
60. Professional education	51
61. Technical education	52
62. Education of special classes	54
63. Teachers	54
64. Students	55
65. Examinations	55
66. Text-books	56
67. School hygiene	57
68. Finance	57
69. Fees	58
70. Scholarships	58
71. Interconnection of schools	59
72. Contemplated reforms	60
CHAPTER III.—CONTROLLING AGENCIES.	
73. The controlling authorities	60
A.—The Central Authorities.	
74. Department of Education	61
75. Departmental inspectors	62
76. Superior Council of Education	62
77. Boards and Committces	63
78. Criticisms of the Department	63
B.—The Local Authorities.	
79. The inspection of schools	64
80. Chief inspectors	65
81. Ordinary prefectural inspectors	66
82. The division of work	66
83. District inspectors	67
84. Average district of an inspector	67
85. Functions of inspectors	68
C.—Cost.	
86. Cost of control	69

CHAPTER IV.—PRIMARY EDUCATION.

87. Institutions for primary education ...	70
<i>I.—Kindergartens.</i>	
88. History ...	70
89. Size ...	71
90. Buildings and equipment ...	71
91. Teachers ...	71
92. The Kindergarten course ...	72
93. Finance ...	72
<i>II.—Elementary Schools.</i>	
94. Definition ...	73
95. History ...	74
96. Grades and continuation classes ...	75
97. Half-time schools ...	76
98. Establishment and maintenance ...	76
99. Obligatory attendance ...	77
100. Machinery for securing attendance ...	78
101. Means of improving attendance ...	79
102. Progress due to work, not miracle ...	80
103. Adequacy of schools ...	81
104. Size of a school ...	82
105. Supervision ...	82
106. Buildings ...	83
107. Site ...	84
108. Plan of the buildings ...	84
109. Equipment ...	85
110. Cost of buildings ...	86
111. Day and boarding schools ...	87
112. School year ...	87
113. School hours ...	88
114. Regularity and punctuality ...	88
115. Class management ...	90
116. Size of class ...	91

TABLE OF CONTENTS.

ix

	Page
117. Single-classed schools	91
118. Discipline	91
119. Special schools for poor children	92
120. Stages of the course	93
121. Number and age of classes	94
122. Promotion and graduation	94
123. Co-education of boys and girls	95
124. Subjects of teaching	95
125. Ordinary primary curriculum	95
126. How much is learned	97
127. Higher primary curriculum	97
128. How much is learned	101
129. Time-tables	102
130. Comparison with Bombay	103
131. Continuation classes	104
132. Extraneous lectures, etc.	105
133. Co-ordination of primary and secondary systems.	105
134. Number of teachers	106
135. Qualifications of teachers	107
136. Appointment of teachers	108
137. Work and length of service	108
138. Retirement of teachers	109
139. Teachers' pay	109
140. Additional salaries for long service	110
141. Teachers' pensions	111
142. School books	112
143. School hygiene	112
144. Finance	113
145. Fees	114
146. Donations	115
147. Cost of particular schools	115

CHAPTER V. — SECONDARY EDUCATION.

148. Institutions for secondary education	115
--	-----

	Page
<i>Middle Schools.</i>	
149. History	116
150. Popularity of middle schools	117
151. Establishment	118
152. Distribution and size	119
153. Supervision	120
154. Recognition of schools	120
155. Buildings	120
156. Equipment	122
157. Cost of buildings and equipment	123
158. Boarding houses	124
159. School year and hours	125
160. School organization	125
161. Admission	126
162. Transfer rules	126
163. Discipline	127
164. Strikes	128
165. Class management	128
166. Length of course, and age of pupils	129
167. Curriculum	129
168. Distribution of time	130
169. Comparison with Bombay	131
170. Official instructions as to the course	131
171. Morals	131
172. Japanese and Chinese	132
173. English	132
174. History	134
175. Geography	135
176. Mathematics	135
177. Science	136
178. Other subjects	137
179. Supplementary course	137
180. Physical training	137
181. Extraneous lectures, etc.	138

	Page
182. Examinations	138
183. Privileges of students	139
184. What becomes of the graduates ..	140
185. School hygiene	140
186. Private schools	140
187. Teachers	141
188. Teachers' qualifications ..	141
189. Teachers' work	142
190. Migrations of teachers	142
191. Teachers' pay	143
192. Teachers' pensions	144
193. Finance	144
194. Fees	144
195. Cost of particular schools	145
CHAPTER VI.—HIGHER SCHOOLS.	
196. History	145
197. Establishment and maintenance	146
198. Size	147
199. Buildings and equipment	147
200. Boarding houses	148
201. School year and hours	149
202. Admission	149
203. The entrance examination	150
204. Entrance papers, 1904	151
205. Discipline	153
206. Course of study	154
207. Comparison with Bombay	155
208. Examples of text-books	155
209. English composition and conversation	157
210. Examinations	157
211. Examination results	158
212. Physical training	159
213. Students and graduates	159
214. Teachers	160

	<i>Page</i>
215. Finance	160
CHAPTER VII.—IMPERIAL UNIVERSITIES.	
216. Universities	161
217. History	161
218. Relative popularity of the colleges	162
219. University organization. The President	164
220. University Council	164
221. College organization	165
222. Academic year	165
223. Admission	166
224. Sureties	166
225. Discipline	167
226. Daily life	167
227. Course of study	168
228. Examinations	169
229. Health	169
230. Discontinuance of studies	170
231. Graduation	170
232. What becomes of the graduates	171
233. University Hall	172
234. Degrees	172
235. Teachers	173
236. Teachers' work and pay	174
237. University Libraries	175
238. Finance	175
239. Scholarships	177
<i>Imperial University of Tokyo.</i>	
240. History	178
241. Buildings and equipment	178
242. Strength of the colleges	179
<i>College of Literature.</i>	
243. Staff	179
244. Relative popularity of subjects	180

	Page
245. Recent changes	180
246. New courses of study	180
247. Courses in philosophy	181
248. Courses in history	182
249. Courses in literature	182
250. Philosophy and pedagogics	183
251. A philosophy paper	184
252. English	184
253. What a student had read	186
254. Graduation papers	187
255. Sanskrit	190
256. Japanese history	190
<i>College of Science.</i>	
257. Staff	191
258. Relative popularity of subjects	191
259. Courses of study	192
260. Museums, etc.	192
261. Examinations	192
<i>Imperial University of Kyoto.</i>	
262. The University of Kyoto	193
CHAPTER VIII. - PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION.	
263. The professions	194
<i>I.—Law.</i>	
264. Popularity of legal studies	194
265. The legal profession	196
266. Institutions for legal instruction	197
267. College of Law, Tokyo University	197
268. Staff	198
269. Courses of study	198
270. Examinations	199
271. Students and graduates	200
272. Other institutions	200

	Page
<i>II.—Medicine.</i>	
273. History of medical studies	200
274. The medical profession	201
275. Nurses	202
276. Institutions for medical instruction	202
277. Medical schools	203
278. Medical College, Tokyo University	204
279. Staff	204
280. Courses of study and examinations	204
281. Students and graduates	205
<i>III.—Engineering.</i>	
282. The engineering profession	206
283. Institutions for instruction in engineering	206
284. Engineering College, Tokyo University	207
285. Staff	208
286. Courses of study and examinations	209
287. Practical work	209
288. Students and graduates	210
289. Grouping by branches. Engineering	210
290. Naval Architecture	211
291. Mining and metallurgy	212
CHAPTER IX.—TECHNICAL EDUCATION.	
292. History	212
293. Co-ordination with local pursuits	214
294. Establishment	214
295. Grades and institutions	215
296. Supplementary technical schools	215
297. Technical schools of class B	217
298. Technical schools of class A	217
299. Higher technical schools	217
300. Teachers	217
301. Finance	218
302. Grants-in-aid	219
303. Divisions of the subject	219

I.—Agriculture.

	Page
304. Agriculture in Japan	219
305. The farmers	220
306. Present condition of the farmers	222
307. By-products	223
308. Live-stock	223
309. Crops, taxes, and wages	224
310. Efforts to improve agriculture	224
311. Institutions for agricultural education	226
312. Effects produced	227
313. Supplementary agricultural schools	227
314. Schools of class B	228
315. Schools of class A	228
316. Examples of schools	229

Sapporo Agricultural School.

317. History	229
318. What the school has done	231
319. Staff and equipment	232
320. Organization	233
321. Preparatory course	233
322. Main course	233
323. Examinations	234
324. Finance	234

Morioka Higher School of Agriculture and Forestry.

325. The Morioka school	235
-------------------------	-----

College of Agriculture, Tokyo University.

326. History	236
327. Staff	236
328. Equipment	237
329. Courses of study and examinations	237
330. Subsidiary courses	238
331. Students and graduates	238

		Page
	<i>II.—Sericulture.</i>	
332.	The silk industry ...	238
333.	Instruction in sericulture ...	239
	<i>III.—Aquatic Products.</i>	
334.	Aquatic industries ...	240
335.	Fishery education ...	241
336.	Examples of schools ...	242
	<i>IV.—Veterinary Science.</i>	
337.	Veterinary science in Japan ...	243
338.	Veterinary instruction ...	244
	<i>V.—Forestry.</i>	
339.	Forests in Japan ...	245
340.	Instruction in forestry ...	246
	CHAPTER X.—TECHNICAL EDUCATION (<i>continued</i>).	
	<i>VI.—Commerce.</i>	
341.	Indigenous commercial system ...	247
342.	Rise of commercial education ...	248
343.	Popular attitude to commercial schools ...	250
344.	Organization of commercial training ...	251
345.	Institutions for commercial education ...	251
346.	Supplementary commercial schools ...	251
347.	Schools of class B ...	252
348.	Schools of class A ...	253
349.	Nagoya commercial academy ...	253
350.	Other examples ...	255
	<i>Higher Commercial School, Tokyo.</i>	
351.	History ...	256
352.	Staff and equipment ...	256
353.	Organization ...	257
354.	Preparatory course ...	258
355.	Main course ...	258

TABLE OF CONTENTS.

xvii

	Page
356. English work	258
357. Students and graduates	259
358. Institute for training teachers	259
<i>Higher Commercial School, Kobe.</i>	
359. Equipment	260
360. Division of preparatory course	260
<i>VII.—Industries.</i>	
361. Government and industries	261
362. Growth of factories	263
363. Some industrial statistics	263
364. Institutions for industrial education	264
365. Supplementary technical schools	265
366. Apprentices' schools	266
367. Government apprentices' school	267
368. A municipal school	268
369. Industrial schools	268
370. Examples	269
371. Summary	272
372. Advanced industrial education	273
<i>Higher Technical School, Tokyo.</i>	
373. History	274
374. Staff and equipment	275
375. Courses of study	275
376. Students and graduates	276
377. Institute for training teachers	277
<i>Higher Technical School, Osaka.</i>	
378. Organization and cost	278
379. Students and graduates	278
<i>Higher Technical School, Kyoto.</i>	
380. Organization and cost	279
<i>VIII.—Nautical Education.</i>	
381. Lower grades	280
382. Mercantile Marine School	280

<i>IX.—Art.</i>		Page
383.	Institutions for Art education ...	281
384.	Tokyo Fine Art School ...	281
385.	Tokyo Academy of Music ...	282
386.	Architecture ...	284
CHAPTER XI.—SPECIAL AND MISCELLANEOUS SCHOOLS.		
387.	Special Schools ...	284
388.	Tokyo Foreign Languages School ...	285
389.	Miscellaneous Schools ...	286
CHAPTER XII.—PRIVATE SCHOOLS.		
390.	Classes of private schools ...	287
391.	Relations to Government ...	289
392.	Keiogijiku ...	290
393.	Waseda University ...	292
394.	Mission schools ...	292
395.	The religious difficulty ...	293
396.	Religious teaching ...	295
397.	A weakness in mission schools ...	295
398.	Examples of schools ...	296
399.	The Doshisha ...	298
400.	Value of the mission schools ...	299
401.	The girls' schools ...	300
CHAPTER XIII.—FEMALE EDUCATION.		
402.	Former position of women ...	302
403.	Former education of women ...	303
404.	The three obediences ...	304
405.	The age of marriage ...	305
406.	The new era ...	305
407.	Fukuzawa's views ...	306
408.	Present feeling towards female education ...	307
409.	Present status of women ...	309
410.	Present conditions of marriage ...	310
411.	Primary education ...	312
412.	Secondary education ...	313

			Page
	<i>Higher Schools for Girls.</i>		
413.	History	...	313
414.	Establishment, distribution, and size	...	314
415.	Supervision	...	315
416.	Buildings and equipment	...	315
417.	School life	...	316
418.	Admission	...	317
419.	Courses of study	...	318
420.	Subjects of study	...	318
421.	Graduation	...	319
422.	Teachers	...	320
423.	Finance	...	320
424.	A private school	...	321
	<i>Japan Women's University.</i>		
425.	History	...	322
426.	Staff	...	323
427.	Preparatory courses	...	323
428.	University courses	...	324
	<i>Industrial Education for Girls.</i>		
429.	School at Tokyo	...	325
430.	School at Kagoshima	...	326
	CHAPTER XIV.—EDUCATION OF SPECIAL CLASSES.		
431.	Divisions of the subject	...	327
	<i>A.—The Aristocracy.</i>		
432.	The Peers' School	...	327
433.	The young nobles	...	329
434.	Present organization	...	330
435.	The Peeresses' school	...	330
	<i>B.—Aborigines.</i>		
436.	Aborigines of Formosa	...	330
437.	The Ainu	...	331
438.	Education of the Ainu	...	332
439.	Examples of schools	...	333

<i>C.—Outcasts.</i>				Page
440.	Outcast classes	334
441.	Their education	335
442.	Weakening of prejudice	337
<i>D.—Defectives.</i>				
443.	School at Kyoto	338
444.	School at Tokyo	338
445.	Courses for the blind	340
446.	Courses for the dumb	341
447.	Graduates	341
448.	Training of teachers	342
449.	Other schools	342
<i>E.—Reformatory Schools.</i>				
450.	Reformatories	343
CHAPTER XV.—TEACHERS.				
451.	Divisions of the subject	343
<i>A.—The Licensing of Teachers.</i>				
452.	Primary school licenses	343
453.	Secondary school licenses	344
<i>B.—The Training of Teachers.</i>				
454.	Institutions for training teachers	346
<i>Normal Schools.</i>				
455.	History	346
456.	Establishment and supervision	347
457.	Buildings and equipment	347
458.	Boarding-houses	348
459.	Practising schools	348
460.	Organization	349
461.	Admission	350
462.	Daily life	351
463.	Subjects of study	352
464.	Practical training	354
465.	Course of study for women	355

	Page
466. Examinations and graduation	355
467. School hygiene	356
468. Libraries, etc.	356
469. Training courses for teachers	357
470. Teachers	357
471. Teachers' pay and pensions	358
472. Finance	359
<i>Higher Normal Schools.</i>	
473. History	359
474. Buildings and equipment	360
475. Practising schools	361
476. Admission	362
477. School life	362
478. Courses of study	362
479. Curricula for males	363
480. Other courses	364
481. Subjects of study	364
482. Examinations	365
483. Curricula for females	365
484. The Hiroshima school	366
485. Students and graduates	366
486. School hygiene, etc.	367
487. Teachers	368
488. Teachers' pay and pensions	368
489. Finance	369
<i>Provisional Training Institutes.</i>	
490. Provisional Institutes	369
491. Courses of study	370
<i>Holiday Institutes.</i>	
492. Holiday courses	370
493. Departmental courses	371
494. Other courses	372
<i>C.—The General Position of Teachers.</i>	
495. Qualifications	373
496. Public esteem	373

	Page
497. Proportion of female teachers ...	374
498. Migrations ...	375
499. Directors ...	375
500. Pay ...	376
501. Rise in the cost of living ...	378

D.—Foreign Teachers.

502. The foreign teachers ...	379
503. Recruitment ...	381
504. Conditions of service ...	382
505. Teachers and students ...	384

CHAPTER XVI.—STUDENTS.

506. Students and their manners ...	385
507. Intellectual qualities ...	386
508. Truthfulness ...	389
509. <i>Esprit-de-corps</i> ...	390
510. Strikes ...	391
511. Daily life and expenditure ...	393
512. Self-help ...	393

CHAPTER XVII.—LANGUAGES.

513. Languages studied ...	395
----------------------------	-----

A.—Japanese.

514. Chinese characters ...	396
515. <i>Kana</i> ...	397
516. Difficulty of Japanese ...	398
517. Written and spoken languages ...	398
518. Treatment of scientific terms ...	399
519. Relation of the Chinese character to education ...	401
520. Proposals for reform ...	403

B.—Chinese.

521. The study of Chinese ...	404
-------------------------------	-----

Page

C.—English.

522.	The study of English	407
523.	Use of the study	407
524.	Methods in lower institutions	408
525.	Methods in higher institutions	410
526.	Other schools	411
527.	Results	411
528.	Written work	412
529.	Mr. Hearn's examples of composition	..		413

D.—Other Languages.

530.	Other languages studied	415
------	-------------------------	-----	-----	-----

CHAPTER XVIII.—EXAMINATIONS.

531.	Competitive examinations for the Civil Service			415
532.	Entrance examinations for schools	415
533.	Periodical examinations in schools	416
534.	Their simplicity	417
535.	No outside examiners	418
536.	High proportion of passes	418
537.	Cramming	420

CHAPTER XIX.—PHYSICAL TRAINING AND SCHOOL

HYGIENE.

538.	Diet	421
539.	The physique of students	422
540.	Physical training in schools	424
541.	Outdoor sports	425
542.	Long walks	426
543.	Students' associations	427
544.	School hygiene	428
545.	School doctors	429

CHAPTER XX.—RELIGIOUS AND MORAL TRAINING.

546.	Shinto	430
547.	Buddhism	431

	Page
548. Attitude of leaders to religion	432
549. Religious teaching in schools	433
550. Apotheosis of the Emperor	433
551. Morality in Old Japan	434
552. Loyalty and patriotism... ..	435
553. Filial Piety	436
554. Manners	436
555. Moral ideals of students	437
556. Moral influence of the West	438
557. The basis of moral teaching	439
558. Imperial Rescript on Morals	440
559. Instructions for moral training	441
560. Moral text-books. Ordinary primary course	442
561. Higher primary course	443
562. A review of the books	444
563. Middle school syllabus	445
564. Specimen lessons	447
565. Value of moral teaching	448
566. Other moral agencies	450
567. Y. M. C. A. hostels	452

CHAPTER XXI.—EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION,
CONFERENCES, ETC.

568. Educational Associations	452
569. Rules of an educational society	454
570. A criticism	454
571. Conferences	455
572. Educational Museum	455
573. Libraries	456
574. Educational literature	456

CHAPTER XXII.—TEXT-BOOKS.

575. The supply of text-books	457
576. Rules for the examination of text-books	459

CHAPTER XXIII.—THE SENDING OF STUDENTS
ABROAD.

577.	The sending of students abroad	...	460
578.	Some features of the system	...	461
579.	Results	..	463

CHAPTER XXIV.—INDIAN STUDENTS IN JAPAN.

580.	Number and occupations of Indian students	..	464
581.	Difficulties of Indian students	..	466
582.	Expenditure	..	467
583.	Japanese opinion of Indians	..	467
584.	Conclusions	..	469

CHAPTER XXV.—FINANCE.

585.	National finance	..	469
586.	Local finance	..	471
587.	Loans	...	472
588.	Incidence per head of population	..	473
589.	Total educational expenditure	..	474
590.	Sources of expenditure	..	474
591.	Objects of expenditure	..	475
592.	School Funds, etc.	..	477

CHAPTER XXVI.—INDIA AND JAPAN

593.	A fundamental difference	..	478
594.	Educational analogies and contrasts	..	479
595.	Salient contrasts	..	480
596.	Public interest in education	..	485

<i>Appendix I.</i> —Rules for the Recognition of Schools, public or private	..	487
--	----	-----

<i>Appendix II.</i> —Specimens of Examination Papers	...	488
--	-----	-----

<i>Appendix III.</i> —Statistics	...	490
----------------------------------	-----	-----

<i>Appendix IV.</i> —Specimen Time-tables	...	501
---	-----	-----

<i>Index</i>	...	509
--------------	-----	-----

THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM OF JAPAN.

Chapter I.—HISTORICAL SKETCH OF EDUCATION IN JAPAN.

1. An outline of the history of education in Japan may be conveniently divided into three sections; the first dealing with the subject up to Perry's arrival in 1853; the second covering the period of transition, until the formation of an Educational Department in 1871; and the third carrying the development of modern education up to the present time. The first section itself falls into two stages, which may be called Buddhist and Confucian respectively, the one marked by the predominance of the religious teacher, the other by that of the secular.

I.—Education in Japan up to 1853.

2. The beginnings of education in Japan, as of so much else, may be traced to the introduction of Chinese civilisation. This had begun to make its way among the Japanese as early as the third century of our era, but it was only in the sixth century, when Buddhist missionaries crossed over from Korea, that Chinese institutions and forms of learning were introduced on a large scale. Buddhism was then already a thousand years old, and had travelled far from its origin in more senses than one; it had developed into a great theological and metaphysical system, with a vast apparatus of ritual, and much that appealed to the Japanese heart and imagination. The indigenous religion of Japan, known as *Shinto*, or the Way of the Gods, combined the worship of the personified forces of nature with that of ancestors, family, tribal or national; but its want of dogmas and moral code, as well as its bareness of ritual, ill-fitted it to withstand its new rival. Yet, even so, the victory of Buddhism was the work of centuries; and it was only by incorporating the Shinto deities into its own system that it finally secured the adhesion of the mass of the Japanese

people. With the upper classes, however, the influence of China and Korea was more rapidly felt. Chinese literature began to be studied by the nobles as a medium for diplomatic intercourse with those countries; students were sent to China to be educated; and the reigning Emperor is said to have organised a university in the year 701, with courses of history, classics, law and mathematics. Further, a school was to be established in each province to teach classics, mathematics and penmanship; and education was endowed with public lands. It is from this period that the earliest extant works date, namely, the *Kojiki* or "Record of Ancient Matters", and the *Nihongi* or "Chronicles of Japan." Before long the imperial example was followed by some of the nobles, who established schools for children connected with their own families. All these institutions were limited to the upper classes from whom the officials were drawn; but there is evidence that some at least of the classics were more widely known, so that there must have been more general facilities for education. Apparently the Shinto priests were no teachers; but the Buddhist priests doubtless offered education to all who cared for it, an education in the arts and sciences of China, as well as in the reading and writing of the vernacular; and such were the intellectual and artistic activities which resulted that the period from the eighth century to the eleventh was reckoned the Golden Age of Japanese letters, the Chinese language being preferred for serious subjects, but the vernacular for poetry and romance.

The Dark
Age.

3. There followed a period of political disturbance during which the higher education declined again, and became the hereditary profession of a few scholars only. The Buddhist temples alone preserved literature and art from extinction; and at one time there was a fashion of public discussions amongst the priests, which recall some of the scholastic disputations in the mediæval universities of Europe. They "travelled from temple to temple to engage in public debate. The ablest debater was the abbot, and he had to be ready to

face any opponent who might appear. If a stranger won, the abbot yielded his place and his living to the victor." * The priests also maintained elementary schools for the people in their neighbourhood, so that *terakoya* (from *tera*, a Buddhist temple) eventually became a common name for the primary schools of Old Japan, whether connected with a temple or not.

4. At this point (1542) Japan was discovered by a Portuguese adventurer, Mendez Pinto, who brought fire-arms to the notice of its inhabitants. To the new market thus opened many other Portuguese soon found their way, the Japanese princes being glad of the opportunity to enrich themselves by trade, and to obtain improved weapons. Nor were missionaries far behind, Xavier himself and another Jesuit landing in 1549. At that time the country was split up into a number of factions which were in constant conflict; Buddhism had practically thrust Shinto out of sight, and Buddhism itself had become a political, and even military, system which stood in the way of the centralising projects of the leading statesman of the age, Nobunaga. Nobunaga, therefore, saw fit to encourage the Jesuits, while he persecuted the Buddhists; and though the restless Xavier did not remain long in Japan, the preaching of his followers met with phenomenal success. Converts were obtained from all classes of society, including some of the Daimyos.† From the Philippines there came also Spanish missionaries, with members of other orders than the Jesuits, and by the end of the century the number of native Christians is said to have been 600,000, though Mr. Murdoch, the latest historian of Japan, is disposed to reduce this number by half. The transition, no doubt, was comparatively easy. The outward resemblance between Buddhism and Roman Catholicism is a commonplace; and there is evidence that some at least of the Japanese at first mistook the new religion for an improved form of Buddhism, which derived

Introduction
of Christi-
anity.

* Gulick, *Evolution of the Japanese*, p. 227.

† *Daimyo*, literally "great name," a feudal lord.

additional sanction from the evident material resources of its professors.

[esuit schools.

5. So much missionary effort could hardly be dissociated from some educational activity; and, in fact, the Jesuits had not only a college at Nagasaki, but also several seminaries, both for general education and for the training of priests. The Portuguese language was studied by those Japanese who desired to inform themselves on Western matters, as Dutch was at a later period, and then English. But these mission-schools were suppressed when the country was closed, and the teaching of the Jesuits seems to have left no trace upon the theory or practice of education in Japan.

Closing
of the
country.

6. Unfortunately for themselves and their converts the missionaries could not refrain from meddling with politics, and even Nobunaga repented of the countenance which he had for political reasons lent to them. His political successor, Hideyoshi, was led to persecute them. For this they were themselves mostly to blame; Jesuits, Franciscans, and Dominicans, Catholics and Protestants, Spaniards, Portuguese, Dutch, and English, all by turns intrigued against one another, and by their jealousies and indiscretions excited the suspicions of the Japanese Government against all alike. The Japanese were not ignorant of what was happening in other parts of the world under the name of religion, and asserted that they had secured documentary evidence of a plot against the independence of Japan. Consequently Hideyoshi issued a decree of banishment against the missionaries, some of whom openly defied him and were crucified. In subsequent years repeated decrees were issued, and systematic persecutions carried out, by Ieyasu, the first Shogun* of the Tokugawa dynasty, and his successors, until it was thought that every trace of Christianity was stamped out. The Shogun Iemitsu then proceeded (1624) to seal up the country against any further influences of the same kind. Foreigners were for-

* *Sei-i, Tai Shogun*, "barbarian-subduing Commander-in-Chief," a title first conferred in 1192.

bidden to enter Japan, its natives were forbidden to leave it; and the only means of communication with the rest of the world was through a few Chinese, and through the Dutch, a small number of whom were allowed to continue on a tiny island in Nagasaki harbour, partly as a reward for having revealed the plot against the Government, and partly, it would seem, because they carefully dissociated themselves from Christianity. Considering the profound effect which Buddhism, Confucianism, and modern civilisation have in turn exercised upon Japan, it is remarkable how little can be pointed out as the permanent result of the intercourse with foreigners between 1542 and 1624. The adoption of fire-arms, tobacco, mosquito-nets and sponge-cake, together with a new disease or two, and a few foreign words, seem to constitute the list of visible results. Of intellectual, moral, or artistic influence there is little trace beyond a long-enduring prejudice against Christianity.

7. The Japanese have never been marked by the stagnant conservatism characteristic of China, but have always been willing ^{Revival of Confucianism.} to learn from those who brought with them anything worth learning. For generations they had sat at the feet of China and Korea, assimilating, but also modifying what those civilisations had to offer; and when the representatives of Europe appeared, these too found a ready hearing. The process of sealing the country against them would perhaps have been less successful, had the Japanese desire for new knowledge not simultaneously found a fresh outlet; Western science was replaced by Confucianism. A knowledge of the teaching of Confucius had, indeed, been introduced into Japan along with the rest of Chinese civilisation early in our era, but it remained latent during the long Buddhist period, until Ieyasu had the Confucian classics printed early in the 17th century. Always a patron of learning, towards the end of his life, when by a common Japanese practice he had retired from the administration of affairs, the great Shogun devoted himself more especially to Confucianism, which came to exercise a remarkable influence over the intellectual class of

Japan. It was hardly a new religion, even though Confucius himself was deified; rather, it was a system of moral and political doctrines, founded upon ancestor-worship similar to that of Japan. It now found ready acceptance with the ruling class, and with the curious eclecticism so characteristic of Japan the symbols of three doctrines might be found in one house; the Confucian classics, the "god-shelf" of Shinto, and the Buddhist ancestral tablets. The last two are still there, but the classics have fallen into neglect.

The "Five Relations."

8. The Confucian classics proper are a set of nine works, of a moral and political character, on which the Chinese have produced a host of commentaries. The Japanese, strange to say, have produced no translations or commentaries of any value, though the Chinese books were so long the chief vehicle of education, and though their leading doctrine, of entire submission to parents and rulers, is still the chief element of political stability in Japan. To these two relations, of Father and Child, Ruler and Subject, Confucius added three others, those of Husband and Wife, Elder and Younger Brother, and Friends; each of the Five Relations having its corresponding virtue. But, whereas in China filial piety was the first of all virtues, the Japanese set loyalty above it; the loyalty, however, being tribal rather than national, due to the feudal lord before the Emperor.

Bushido, the feudal ethics

9. The code of ethics which resulted from the Japanese study of Confucianism was known as *Bushido*, or the way of the *Bushi*, the warriors or knights of feudal Japan; it thus answered to the code of mediæval chivalry in Europe. "With them, as with us, obedience unquestioning and enthusiastic was yielded to feudal superiors, to monarchs ruling by right divine, obedience even unto death. With them, as with us, it was birth and breeding that counted, not money. The *samurai's* word was his bond, and he was taught to be gentle as well as brave."* But three characteristic differences are noted by Professor Chamberlain; one, the practice of suicide, where Europe had

* Chamberlain, *Things Japanese*.

the duel; the others, the absence of gallantry towards the fair sex, and of religious fervour,—“neither God nor the ladies inspired any enthusiasm in the *samurai's* breast.” Confucian in its essence, Bushido was reinforced by Buddhist fatalism on the one hand, by the Shinto tenet of loyalty on the other; and the resulting product was the ideal *samurai*, both soldier and scholar. Hitherto the warriors had been too busy fighting to have much thought for culture; but under the long peace enforced by the iron rule of the Tokugawa Shoguns the *samurai* had abundant leisure, which many of them utilised in the field of letters. Literature assumed a variety of popular forms; while educationally this period is marked by the rise of the secular teacher, in place of the priestly educator of the Buddhist age.

10. The *samurai* stood at the head of Japanese society, after the Imperial family. Broadly speaking, the population was divided into the following classes, analogous to the primitive castes of India; first, the official and military class; secondly, the farmers; thirdly, the artisans; fourthly, the traders; and lastly, outside the pale of society, certain degraded classes called *eta*, *hinin* (“not-men”), etc., corresponding to the pariahs and outcasts of India. Occupations were usually hereditary; but, thanks perhaps to the influence of Buddhism, these classes hardly crystallized into the rigid castes of Egypt or India. The official and military class included the nobles and their retainers. These constituted the *samurai*; they received hereditary incomes of rice, wore two swords, were exempt from taxation, and formed the educated class because they had the most leisure. Of them there were 400,000 families, amounting to about two millions of persons in all. The Daimyos numbered 292, receiving incomes which varied from 10,000 *koku* of rice (say about £10,000) to more than a million. The absence of any priestly caste will be noticed; the Buddhist priesthood was open to any one, and many a *samurai* shaved his head, and renounced the world, for one reason or another. The priests, however, ranked with the *samurai*, and along with

Feudal organization.
The *Samurai*.

them were supported by the labours of the rest of the people, who were taxed to the utmost limits of their capacity to pay. In some parts, indeed, the *samurai* were permitted to farm, but nowhere was any trade or handicraft open to them. Maintained in idleness in order that they might fight, and debarred from fighting by the long peace of the Tokugawa Shogunate, it is hardly possible that they can all have lived up to the high moral level depicted, for instance, in Dr. Nitobe's sketch, *Bushido, the Soul of Japan*.

Other classes. 11. The low position of the traders in the social scale is another noteworthy feature. The Japanese despised such a calling much as the old Greek aristocrats did, and this contempt has been reflected in the moral character of the trading class up to the present day. But the farmers and artisans were not much better off; the feudal barons and their military retainers lorded it over the whole nation. "They used to cut off the heads of the common people as farmers cut off the head of a radish," * sometimes merely to test the temper of a sword. By the Shogun Ieyasu it was laid down that the *samurai* were masters of the four classes. "Farmers, artisans, and merchants may not behave in a rude manner towards *samurai*, and a *samurai* is not to be interfered with in cutting down a fellow who has behaved to him in a manner other than is expected." † We have here the main explanation of the politeness of manner for which Japan is famous; when death may be the penalty for the smallest breach of etiquette, it is likely that the rules of etiquette will settle into the national character until they are followed instinctively.

Schools in
the feudal
period.

12. During this period there were two sets of schools in existence, one intended especially for *samurai*, whilst in the other set (the *terakoya*) ordinary people obtained such education as was open to them, namely, the elements of reading, writing, and arithmetic. Occasionally *samurai*

* A Japanese informant, quoted by Gulick, *Evolution of the Japanese*, p. 53.

† Hearn, *Japan*, p. 193.

children were also to be found in the *terakoya*. The teacher here was sometimes a priest, sometimes a doctor or other individual who possessed a little education; in the *samurai* schools the teachers were themselves *samurai*. The fifth Tokugawa Shogun in 1691 organized a Confucian college, which became the highest educational institution in Japan down to the Restoration of 1868; an endowment of land was granted to it, and the attendance of learned men and of students encouraged. Following this example the feudal lords and their chief vassals established schools in every province for the children of their respective retainers; some of them also collecting books and patronising men of learning, with unexpected results. But when the new era brought Western education into Japan, all these institutions were swept away; they live only in the memories of men now growing old, or in a few pathetic relics such as the huge irregular stone, of the sort the Japanese love, which stands in a mouldering grave-yard on the outskirts of Kyoto; the time-worn characters, deciphered with difficulty, declaring it to have been raised by the pupils of a *terakoya* to the memory of their teacher. Some of these teachers were greatly beloved; others were probably both ignorant and somewhat brutal.

13. Every town had several *terakoya*, every large village at least one; but many of them taught writing only. The pupils knelt on cushions before low tables, and began with the two Japanese syllabaries, each of which has 47 characters. These they copied, as they do still, with writing-brushes and Chinese ink on sheets of paper, which soon became both black and wet, and were then dried for further use, the strokes of a wet brush being visible on the dry surface, however black. A good deal of the ink naturally transferred itself to the children, whose faces and hands used to get "as black as those of demons." When a letter had been sufficiently practised, it was copied fair on clean paper and shown to the teacher, who corrected it, if necessary, with red ink; if it was satisfactory, the child proceeded to a fresh one. When the Japanese characters had

The *Terakoya*.

been mastered, a few Chinese ones were learned, perhaps a hundred in all, or enough for the commonest names of persons and places, and the most necessary business terms. At times the children had competitions in penmanship, the best specimens being dedicated in the temples of Tenjin, the patron of calligraphy. Besides writing the use of the *soroban*, or calculating-frame, was taught; and some schools added the reading of a very little history. Most of the children attended for two or three years only, but some stayed as long as six or seven. The number of pupils varied greatly. In one case there were 100, of whom 30 were girls; elsewhere, a castle town had six schools, two of which reckoned 500 pupils between them, about 10 per cent. being girls. Another town had three schools, kept by a Buddhist priest, a Shinto priest, and a doctor, the largest numbering a hundred; whilst in a certain village the Buddhist priest taught about ten children, the doctor from five to ten. The teacher received a few pounds of rice yearly from each, and perhaps a little money, if the pupil could afford it. Discipline varied with the teacher. Sometimes a boy was made to stand up for an hour facing a class; sometimes he was rapped with a short stick, or held down to be flogged with a bamboo; sometimes he had to hold a lighted incense-stick until it burnt his fingers. One of my informants, an aged inn-keeper, spoke with enthusiasm of his teacher, a *samurai*, who for some fault had been deprived of his income by his lord, and had taken to teaching for a livelihood. His wife aided him by instructing the girls, and as many boys as cared to attend, in etiquette and the arrangement of flowers. This school was frequented by *samurai* boys as well, and in it no barbarous punishments were known.

The *Samurai*
schools.

14. Of the *samurai* schools a somewhat detailed account appeared in the *Japan Mail* in 1873, summarized in an appendix to the second volume of Adams's History of Japan. Shortly before the collapse of the old order there were three grades of such schools, two of which, the primary and the middle, might be found in most of the Daimyos' capitals; the third, a kind of

college, was rarer, the best example being the college at Yedo, already referred to. This was the chief seat of Chinese learning, whilst Kyoto was the centre of Buddhism, æstheticism, and pure Japanese literature. The *samurai* boy began his education at the age of six or seven, and commonly spent about five years in the primary school. First came the writing and reading of the two Japanese syllabaries, and then the study of Chinese writing. Kneeling on the ground, with his pupils kneeling about him, the teacher began with the pronunciation of the Chinese characters. After the entire book under study had been committed to memory by sound, the class made a fresh start and learned the meaning of the separate characters. The book was then again revised, and its general meaning explained. In this tedious fashion, learning hundreds of forms and sounds before attaching any meaning to them, the pupils worked their way through several classics, the Small Learning, the Moral Duties of Man, the Four Books of Morals of Confucius, the Book of Filial Duties, the Book of Great Lineage, the Ancestors of the Emperor, etc. They learned to write their own names, the names of the Emperors, of the provinces and cities of Japan, of streets, of familiar objects, of the seasons, of various countries, of eras and years, and so on; they learned to read and copy the edicts of Government; they learned the four rules of arithmetic, and the use of the abacus. Much time was also given to the practice of etiquette. Examinations were held twice a year, at which the Daimyo or some of his officials were present, and prizes were bestowed on the most diligent, who then passed into the middle school. Here the boys read histories of China and Japan; they studied rhetoric, strategy, and the topography of their own country; and learned how to write official or private letters in various styles. At the same time the work in arithmetic was carried a little further. But the distinctive feature of the middle school was the physical training; fencing, wrestling, archery, the use of the spear, swimming, and horsemanship were prominent in the curriculum, which usually covered about

three years. In the few higher schools, or colleges, which existed all this was carried still further, historical classics being also studied, along with more advanced arithmetic, and even a little algebra. Few pupils got as far as this, but no *samurai* could become a house-holder unless he had at least attended the primary school. The school-hours were generally six daily, but numerous holidays were observed throughout the year. Discipline was strict; if a boy was late, he had to stay out for the day; when once inside he was not allowed to leave until school was over. Pieces of silk, inkstones, writing-brushes, etc., were awarded as prizes; whilst the common punishments were detention, whipping, walking up and down with a writing-table on the head, or having the *moxa** burnt on the finger.

Rigorous
character of
the training.

15. Thus, apart from the physical training, the education of a *samurai* consisted in learning to write, to reckon on the abacus, and to read Japanese history and Government edicts, and in committing to memory a number of Chinese classics dealing with moral, political or historical topics. "The whole system," says the writer in the *Japan Mail*, "gave the youth a wonderful dexterity in the manipulation of the pen, and a minute knowledge of two Asiatic countries; it trained the memory, and stored the mind with a few facts and many precepts. It made him obedient, respectful to superiors, and reverent to parental and Government authority, to such an extent indeed as to destroy all self-reliance. It gave him a strong, healthy, and muscular body. It made him an athlete and a warrior; it inured him to pain, and taught him to despise death." In this last respect, indeed, the training was extraordinarily rigorous, and comparable to that of ancient Sparta, the teaching of the school being here reinforced by the discipline of the home. "Boys were inured to sights of blood. They were taken to witness executions; and very young boys might be required to go alone at midnight to the execution-ground and

* A small cone of vegetable fibre.

bring back a head as proof of courage..... He was shown how to use the little sword in his girdle, how to take his own life at a moment's notice, whenever the code of his class might so order.* It must be added that the agnostic character of the doctrines of the Chinese philosophers naturally disposed their students to be sceptical of any form of supernatural religion ; and though the *samurai* was taught to respect the ancient gods of his country and the spirits of his ancestors, neither hope of heaven nor fear of hell was likely to influence his actions. Character and physique were the two ends of his training, the cultivation of the intellect being quite secondary to these.

16. This education was free, except in so far as the scholars might like to make presents to their teachers, the ordinary expenses being borne by the Government or the feudal lords. Some of the pupils lived at their own homes, others lodged with the teacher as members of his own family. The service which he rendered to them was not considered measurable in money ; his work had something sacred about it, and as "the father of the mind" he was entitled to only less reverence than one's natural father. *Father of the mind*, however, was just what he was not ; to develop a boy's mind, to teach him to think for himself, were no part of his business, and might even have been considered impious. "His chief duty was to stuff and cram the minds of his pupils." Still, such as his work was, his students were duly grateful for it, and the most intimate relations often existed between teacher and taught, relations which (except under special circumstances) the advent of the paid professional teacher has destroyed. The teachers, it need hardly be said, were wholly untrained ; learning they might have, but not always skill to impart it, and comparatively few made teaching their permanent employment. *

17. One point remains to be noticed in the educational arrangements of feudal Japan, and that is the provision for female education. Many of the *terakoya* were attended by a

* Hearn, *Kokoro*, p. 172.

fair number of girls; and in the case of town girls there was an obvious advantage in their acquiring the rudiments of reading and writing, so that when married they might look after their husbands' business, if need were. Needlework was taught to many, and farmers' daughters might learn weaving. There were also some schools for *samurai* girls, where they learned a little Chinese writing and fencing. But in general girls of the upper class were attended in their own homes by private instructors, who taught them writing, music, poetical composition, the arrangement of flowers, and polite etiquette. A few studied Chinese literature. They were also taught fencing, partly for self-protection, and partly that they might supervise the training of their sons. And, like the boys, they were taught how to kill themselves neatly and promptly in case of need. But of intellectual training there was little; "it is no undesirable thing," said Confucius, "for a wife to be stupid, whereas a learned woman is more likely to be a curse in a family than a blessing."*

The reopening of the country.

18. By their patronage of learning, and especially of historical research, the Shoguns were unconsciously forging a weapon for their own destruction. The very peace which their Government secured to Japan encouraged the growth of an influential class of scholars, who learned from their study of history that the Shogunate had usurped † powers for which there was no historical justification, and which were inconsistent with the theory of the divine descent of the Emperors. The study of Confucianism, again, aided this feeling by the stress which it laid upon the obedience of the subject to his prince. Jealousy also played its part, the great lords resenting the supremacy of a Tokugawa whose ancestor had been but one of themselves. These and other forces tended to create a school of thinkers whose object was to uphold Japanese litera-

* Quoted by Lewis, *Educational Conquest of the Far East*.

† Not technically, since the Shogun was always invested with authority by the Emperor.

ture as against Chinese, Shinto as against Buddhism and Confucianism, the Emperor as against the Shogun. These students produced a whole library of works upon religious, historical, and literary subjects, but they did not openly attack the Shogunate, and it was not until 1841 that the latter took alarm. By that time, however, the new ideas had spread from the scholars to the *samurai* in general, and the slowly ripening movement to bring the Emperor out of his seclusion at Kyoto would probably have ended in his restoration to power, even without foreign interference. As it was, the march of events was greatly hastened by the appearance of the American Commodore Perry in 1853 and 1854, with his demand for a treaty and for better treatment for shipwrecked sailors. The British, the French, and the Russians followed; and the Shogunate was unable either to keep them out, or to compel the insubordinate Daimyos to fulfil its obligations to them. The foreigners, on their part, demanded a central Government to deal with, capable of controlling the local Daimyos, and thus they expedited the union of Japan under its young Emperor in 1867-68, from which period the Japanese date their present era, that of Meiji, or "enlightened rule." With the Shogunate there also fell Confucianism, and Shinto was for a time declared the State religion. Thus the scholars' party had triumphed, and some looked for the expulsion of the foreigners to follow. But those who wielded the authority of the new Government saw that during her long seclusion Japan had fallen so far behind Western nations that she was utterly unable to resist them by force. The only alternative was to learn the secrets of their power; to save the empire, it was absolutely necessary to Europeanize it. As it happened, the strangers brought with them, not only a strong impulse towards national unity, but also material instruments, such as steamers, telegraphs, effective weapons, etc., for carrying it out.* By these instruments the new central Government was enabled to assert

* Gulick, *Evolution of the Japanese*, p. 44.

itself decisively over any local force, to unify the nation rapidly, in short, to compress the process of transformation into an astonishingly brief period. That the change was not without friction, the bullet-marks on the castle of Saga, the hundreds of graves at Kagoshima attest; but surely seldom has a revolution so momentous been accomplished with so little friction.

II.—Education in the Transitional Period, 1853-71.

Influence of
the Dutch at
Nagasaki.

19. Whilst political events thus rapidly developed between the coming of Perry and the restoration of the Emperor to power, the whole attitude of the nation towards education began to undergo a change, in which a force hitherto obscurely at work became daily more manifest. Rapid as the transformation of Japan has been, the way had been prepared for it for nearly two centuries, not only by the scholars already referred to, but by another intellectual force emanating from Nagasaki. All through the period of seclusion the Dutch traders had retained their footing on the little island of Deshima, and from them there had filtered through some rudimentary knowledge of European sciences and arts. Professor Chamberlain tells us that glass, velvet, woollen fabrics, clocks, telescopes, etc., were obtained from this source, and even a few scraps of literature, such as *Æsop's Fables*, translated about 1670. "Precise details are difficult to obtain because of the censorship which rigorously repressed Dutch studies. But we know enough to be able to say positively that from 1650 to 1850 the little Dutch settlement was constantly looked to by eager minds as a fountain of intellectual light."* The possession of a foreign book was punishable with death; yet, even so, a few earnest students secretly learned enough Dutch to make their way through books obtained at enormous cost from the settlement at Nagasaki, or copied out in manuscript when printed copies were not available. It is characteristic of the Japanese that the subjects which attracted them most were the arts of medicine and of war.

* *Things Japanese.*

20. The eighth Tokugawa Shogun, about 1720, adopted a more liberal policy, and permitted the importation of Dutch books dealing with mathematics, astronomy, geography, medicine, botany, chemistry, etc., only those of a religious character being still excluded. He ordered important works to be translated, and in 1783 a Dutch grammar was issued in Japanese. Some twenty years later British and Russian ships began to appear in Japanese waters; the Shogun's Government was constrained to order its Dutch interpreters to study English and Russian as well; and the question of national defence began to exercise the minds of some earnest thinkers. Of the students of "Dutch learning" at that time some confined themselves to medicine, but the more advanced party took up history and geography as well, their interest in these being aroused by the sight of maps showing the smallness of Japan, and the encroachments of Russia. Some of the great Daimyos, always jealous of the Shogun, began to introduce into their own provinces (about 1837) not only the Dutch military system, but also factories for fire-arms, cotton-mills, and the like. The princes of Satsuma were among the most enlightened; they encouraged the study of Dutch and English, as well as of Japanese history and literature; they actively developed the resources of their province, and its military organization; and they managed to send a number of clever young men to study in Europe and America at a time when it was still a capital crime to leave Japan. As the Shogunate began to totter to its fall, the Government, being in urgent need of interpreters, had to overlook much that was still technically illegal, and finally to open a school (about 1860) for the study of French, German, and Russian, as well as Dutch and English. By 1865 the Dutch language was going out of fashion in favour of English; but it had done its work. "It would be hard," says Dr. Griffis,* "to find a single native pioneer of progress in the early years of Meiji,—statesman, diplomatist, military leader, physician, man of science, inter-

* *Mikado's Empire*, p. 621.

preter, author, preacher,—who was not directly indebted to the Dutch.”

Entrance of
foreign teach-
ers.

21. Finally, by an oath taken in April 1868, in the presence of his nobles, the young Emperor swore to establish his throne on five great principles, one of which was that intellect and learning should be sought after in all quarters of the world. This was not, indeed, a new principle in Japan; her best minds had always been ready to learn, whether from China, from Spain and Portugal, or from Holland. But her “world” had hitherto been a narrow one; henceforth it was to be co-extensive with the globe, and the Emperor’s oath opened the way for thousands of teachers in every department of human activity. These teachers have been drawn from many countries, Americans, British, Germans, and French having had the leading shares in the work of creating the new Japan; but it is difficult now to learn much about the pioneers. Dr. Griffis, however, has published an account of one of the foremost under the title “Verbeck of Japan,” from which most of the following details are taken.

Verbeck.

22. A Hollander by birth, G. F. Verbeck was trained as a civil engineer, and practised for a time as such in America. Then he was ordained, and sailed as a missionary for Japan in 1859, almost as soon as the country was re-opened, to labour there for nearly forty years. At the time of his arrival Christianity was still under a ban, and the edicts prohibiting the “evil sect” still figured on the public notice-boards. The missionaries had to content themselves, therefore, with studying the language and teaching English or general knowledge to such as chose to resort to them. But the Governor of Nagasaki was so pleased with the progress of two young men whom Verbeck had taught, that he proposed to the Shogun’s Government that a school for foreign languages and science should be founded under Verbeck. This being sanctioned, a school-house was built, and filled to overflowing with more than 100 pupils. The English books chiefly used by the teacher were the Bible and the Constitution of the United States; and his pupils numbered many who have

since stood high in the Government of the country. Some were sent by his advice to America. In 1869 the capital was transferred from Kyoto to Yedo, henceforth called Tokyo, and Verbeck was summoned thither to found a university, and to advise the men whose confidence he had gained. For their sake he busied himself with the translation of numerous works, such as the Code Napoléon, Bluntschli's Staatsrecht, the constitutions of several States, and a crowd of other treatises, chiefly legal and political. Verbeck's modesty, and willingness to let others have the credit for what he himself had suggested, led the Japanese to consult him on all sorts of topics. He strongly urged the re-organisation of the army and navy; it was he who suggested, and drafted a programme for the famous embassy under Iwakura to America and Europe (1871—73); and it was his advice which turned the scale in favour of placing medical teaching in German hands, whilst legal reform was entrusted to French experts. Writing in 1870, he said:—

- There is a widespread demand, an actual thirst in many, for Western learning and science. Here is our college, with its hundreds of English, French and German scholars, besides this there are several private schools carried on by natives for the study of English chiefly, and there are numbers of students who study, independent of any school whatever, by books and their own efforts only.
- There are three large hospitals and medical colleges, in which eight foreign Physicians are engaged. Western medical science has nearly superseded the old Chinese system of quacks "

23. • At first there was naturally a difficulty about teachers. The Japanese had little conception of a trained teacher; any one who could speak a language was supposed to be capable of teaching it. Hence they picked up all sorts of strange persons from the Treaty ports; and if the new "professor" appeared in the class-room drunk, if he smoked his pipe while teaching, or swore at the students, the Japanese took such to be merely the peculiarities of the "hairy foreigner." Even Verbeck, who was overwhelmed with requests for teachers for the provincial schools established by various Daimyos, could not always pick up decent men; and the authorities came to feel that, if they wanted trustworthy men, they must have missionaries.

Verbeck himself was no fanatic ; he was glad to get hold of men who were not "Reverends," but Japan at that time was still unsettled and unsafe for foreigners ; there had been many murderous outrages, and the number of teachers who were willing to venture into the interior of the country, even with revolvers in their pockets, was limited. In connection with the "university" at Tokyo 50 armed men were maintained for the protection of the foreign teachers whenever they went out for a walk ; and "by a curious system of Japanese arithmetical progression" one man accompanied a single foreigner, four went with two, and eight with three. Another difficulty was that the Japanese, in their intense jealousy and suspicion of foreigners, were not inclined to allow the latter any voice in the management of schools, or even the arrangement of studies. The foreign teacher, however able, was merely a hireling, subordinate to Japanese officials who might be entirely ignorant of Western methods and subjects, and yet devoted much of their energy to hampering and discouraging their hired servant and his pupils.

The primitive
university of
Tokyo.

24. One of the first Daimyos to organize a provincial school was the feudal lord of Echizen, a province on the west coast. Here, in his capital of Fukui, a medical and literary school was established by men who had studied at Nagasaki, and application was made for five teachers, one for English, another for physical science, a mining engineer, a doctor, and a military instructor. The medical man was offered a salary of 3,600 dollars, but it was stipulated that he must understand Dutch ; a Mr. Lucy from Birmingham came as the English teacher, whilst Verbeck procured the services of his future biographer, the Reverend Mr. Griffis, as the teacher of science. Mr. Griffis reached Japan from America in January 1871, and stayed with Verbeck in the precincts of the "university" at Tokyo. There he saw "a prime minister, heads of departments, and officers of various ranks, coming to find out from Mr. Verbeck matters of knowledge, or to discuss with him points and courses of action."* As for the university, it consisted of rows

* *Verbeck of Japan*, p. 234.

of sheds with glass windows, and desks and seats of deal. "Within were about a thousand barefooted or sandalled, top-knotted and two-sworded pupils, who wore what seemed to me bed-room wrappers and petticoats, often with slates and ink-bottles slung to their girdles," after a fashion which may still be seen in the neighbourhood of any school. They were of every age, and from every part of the empire, attending English, French, or German departments. The elderly men, who wished only to read and translate a foreign language without speaking it, were mostly in the "meaning-school." The younger (though some of them were over 30) learned the alphabet, spelling, conversation, writing, geography, arithmetic, and simple history. On arrival at school each man gave up his wooden clogs, paper umbrella, and longer sword, receiving wooden checks for them which he hung from his belt along with his short sword. "With officers utterly unacquainted with their duties, teachers of all sorts, and no sort at all, undisciplined pupils; having to combat suspicion, ignorance, and, worse than all, Japanese vanity and conceit, Verbeck toiled on for years." Half of his pupils boarded in barracks at the school, but what they did with their spare time or their nights was their own affair. From this account it will be seen that the "university" was practically a school of foreign languages, intended for the privileged class of *samurai*; but it awakened enthusiasm in the country, and on the departure of young men for it in subsequent years their friends would recite these Chinese verses *.—"The young man, having made a firm resolve, leaves his native home, if he fail to acquire learning, then even though he dies he must never return."

25. Dr. Griffis gives a companion picture of the provincial school which he joined at Fukui. He found about 800 students, a few of whom had been studying English for two or three years under native teachers. There was a good collection of Dutch books in the medical department; the military school had a library of foreign military works, chiefly in English; and there was a

A provincial school, 1871.

* Hearn, *Japan*, p. 405.

respectable school library of English and American books. "All the students were bare-headed, with the topknot, queue, and shaven mid-scalp, most of them with bare feet on their clogs; and with their characteristic dress, swagger, fierce looks, bare skin, and murderous swords, they impressed upon my memory a picture of feudalism I shall never forget."* Later on he wrote (p. 518) that he found them surprisingly eager and earnest, learning fast and studying hard.

"I spend six hours daily in the school. In the evening at my house I have special classes of young men, doctors, teachers, and a circle of citizens, who listen to talks on various subjects. My plan is to take a good text-book and explain it by talking, maps, charts, diagrams, and the black-board, allowing the auditors to ask questions freely at intervals. Physical and descriptive geography, geology, chemistry, physiology, microscopy, moral science, the science of Government, the history of European countries, the various arts and manufactures, our social system, and, for those who wish it, the Bible, are thus treated of,—superficially indeed but effectively."

Dr. Griffis has recently stated that only three days after his arrival in Fukui he was asked to teach them how to blow up warships with submarine mines. On the abolition of feudalism in the same year he was summoned to Tokyo by the new Department of Education, in order to organize a polytechnic school.

A relic of
feudalism.

26. The schools of Tokyo and of Fukui have long since lost their feudal character, but it may be of interest to refer to another school which still retains some links of connection with the past. Nearly 40 years ago, in the era of Keio, which preceded that of Meiji, some young *samurai* were sent to Yedo by the lord of one of the chief clans, to complete their training. There one of them came in contact with some Japanese who were being trained by French officers, and was struck by the difference. The Frenchmen could draw maps and seemed to know everything; whilst the Japanese thought only of making themselves strong, and of how and where to cut with a sword. The young man returned home to represent to his lord that his officers ought to have more education. The Daimyo promptly converted

* *Mikado's Empire*, p. 431.

his summer palace by the river into a school for officers, and placed the young *samurai* in charge of it. Since then the institution has become an ordinary middle school, but the same director, now gray-haired, still presides over its fortunes. A fund contributed by the former Daimyo, together with the tuition-fees, supports the school; the students wear no ugly, ill-fitting, foreign uniform, but the dark-blue *kimono* and *hakama* of the *samurai*; and they carry their books and lunch to and fro in a knapsack, which recalls the origin of the school. Many have passed into the army and navy, and the building is decorated with pictures of ships and military trophies, presented by its alumni. Unversed himself in English or the various subjects of modern education, the director watches with fatherly interest the careers of his pupils, of whom he boards a number in his own house.

27. Verbeek retired from the public service in 1877, transferring his energies to direct mission work. He seems to have influenced the course of Japanese development more than any other single foreigner during the period covered by this section, both by what he did himself, and what he procured to be done; for the great embassy which he had proposed included an educational committee, whose studies abroad bore much fruit on their return home. The other foreigners, about whose work I have been able to learn anything, really belong more to the period which follows; but it is convenient to refer to them at this point. In 1872 David Murray, professor of mathematics and astronomy in an American college, was appointed superintendent of education in Japan, where he worked for six years. With him was closely associated Dr. D. B. McCarter, who seems to have taught both natural science and English law, and who helped to organize a higher normal school. A Mr. Scott, who came from a normal school in America, gave valuable assistance in organizing both normal and primary schools. Another American was Dr. Clark, who started the great agricultural school at Sapporo. From the lead which America took, in the re-opening of Japan, from its vicinity which facilitated the

Other foreign
teachers.

arrival of teachers, and from the Japanese embassy's approval of the American public school system, it resulted that Americans played the most prominent part in the earlier periods of educational reform. When, on the other hand, it was decided to follow the German system of medical training, the German Government sent out two doctors, Müller and Hoffmann, who served long and honourably in Japan. Another honoured name is that of Dr. Baelz, who still practises in Tokyo. A German pioneer of a different kind was Dr. Gottfried von Wagener, who was employed by the Daimyo of Hizen in 1870 to improve the methods of porcelain manufacture, and who subsequently established an artisans' school at Tokyo.* But these few names and meagre particulars are all gathered from foreign sources; the Japanese themselves ignore as much as possible the names and services of their foreign employés. Beyond one or two primitive Chinese not a single foreigner is mentioned in the official account of education in Japan prepared for the Exhibition at St. Louis, an account which might lead one to suppose that the whole structure had sprung from the brain of Japan.

Educational
influence of
Japanese
writers.

28. Besides the foreign teachers another powerful educative force was at work. Fifty years or more ago, the advocates of Western education in India believed that, if the upper strata of society were educated on Western lines, they would be glad to make their new knowledge accessible to their fellow-countrymen, the process of filtration relieving the colossal task of attacking the education of the lower strata direct. The process which has come to so little in India has proved a reality in Japan, where those who first acquired the light showed themselves extremely eager to hand on the torch to others. There has issued from the press a crowd of translations and other works intended to popularize the new conceptions. Iwakura's embassy published a number of volumes which helped to open the eyes of the public, by their descriptions of the history, politics, finance, education, and military organisation

* Griffis, *The Mikado's Empire*, p. 623.

of the different States visited; and many others who had been abroad gave their countrymen enthusiastic accounts of Western civilisation.

29. But amongst all these writers there towered one figure, Fukuzawa, that of the late Mr. Fukuzawa. Born in 1835, a *samurai*, poor and an orphan, he managed to learn some Dutch under plea of the study of medicine, and then found to his disappointment that the language of the merchants at Yokohama was English. This also he studied, and made himself so useful to the officials as a translator that he was attached to the first embassy sent to America in 1860. But he would never afterwards accept any official position, nor the title of nobility which was offered to him; he preferred to labour as a private school-master, author, and translator,—“teaching his countrymen how to construct electric batteries, how to found cannon, how to study geography and elementary physics; to acquire such knowledge concerning foreign institutions as could be put to use in money-making, to lead decent self-respecting lives, to discard foolish old customs, to diffuse well-being throughout the nation by levelling ranks, he himself giving the example, for he dropped his *samurai* privileges, and became a mere commoner.”* While many declared the Japanese language unfit for public lecturing, Fukuzawa introduced the practice, coining equivalents for foreign technical terms when necessary. Of his books three and a half million copies, or over seven million volumes, were issued in the space of 33 years; in addition he edited a newspaper, and founded a school, the Keiogiijiku, which became so popular, and on which he exercised so much influence, that he has been called the intellectual father of more than half the young men who now direct the affairs of the country. He had not, perhaps, to contend against prejudices as strong as those to which religion adds rancour in India; yet he began his work whilst feudalism still prevailed, and had to face a good deal of aristocratic prejudice against a school where commercial subjects, were

* *Things Japanese.*

taught. So late as 1874 two or three young men, who travelled from the west coast to Kobe in search of "Dutch learning," had their homes wrecked by a conservative mob; though even then, as one of them related to me, they were more fortunate than one of their friends, who had had his head cut off by a Tokugawa clansman for a similar offence a few years before. But Fukuzawa did not hesitate to point out the weaknesses and errors of his countrymen, showing "how by isolation, and the false pride that scorned all foreign knowledge, Japan had failed to advance; and that nothing could save the country from conquest or decay but the assimilation of the ideas which have made the foreigners what they are."*

Abolition of
feudalism.

30. A reform urgently required in the interest of national unity was the abolition of feudalism, effected in 1871, when the Daimyos retired into private life, and the Government was organized in separate departments after the Western pattern. About the same time the outcast *eta* and *hinin* were recognised as ordinary people. A few relics of feudalism still remain, in the assistance rendered by some of the former Daimyos to education in what were once their feudal provinces. One school founded by a feudal lord has already been mentioned; the higher schools of Yamaguchi and Kagoshima have owed much to the princes of Choshu and Satsuma; and there are other cases of the kind. Poor boys are sometimes assisted with loan scholarships by those who would have been their feudal lords; others are lodged and fed while they pursue their studies in Tokyo. In several cases feudal castles or their grounds have been converted into great normal or middle schools. The site of the *yashiki*, or town-quarters, of the wealthiest of the Daimyos is now occupied by the Imperial University of Tokyo; and within another *yashiki* stands the magnificent mansion of a modern commercial magnate, together with a commercial school founded by him.

The World-
Embassy,
1871.

31. The new departments of Government established in 1871 included one of education, so that this date may be taken as the

* Griffis, *The Mikado's Empire*, p. 320.

starting-point of the present system, though the first code did not appear till the following year. Before that year began the famous embassy had left Japan, the embassy which included Iwakura and Ito, and which in America picked up as secretary J. H. Neesima, afterwards well-known in connection with Christian education in Japan. The educational enquiries were in charge of Mr. (now Viscount) Tanaka, who as vice-minister for education practically administered educational affairs in Japan for some years subsequently. A bulky volume was published in Japanese, containing a description of the educational systems of ten States in America and Europe, but without comments, as Mr. Tanaka did not consider it necessary to report to himself his own opinions on what he had seen. He was good enough, however, to furnish me with a few notes on the subject, from which it appears that the first feature of American education impressed on the Japanese was its decentralisation; every State had its own system, the central Government maintaining a mere bureau of records. The higher education of America did not impress them much, but their admiration was excited by the organisation of primary education in several of the States, notably Massachusetts and Connecticut. Whilst in America they realised the necessity of engaging foreign teachers and advisers, and entered into a contract with Mr. David Murray, who has been mentioned already, to serve as superintendent of education. They then proceeded to England, France and Germany, finding the primary education of the last two countries far inferior to that of America, but the higher education in Germany, and especially in Prussia, the most developed in the world. On British schools Viscount Tanaka expressed no particular opinion, beyond the remark that neither in England nor in America was there any definite system, enacted by law, and capable of being transferred bodily, as might have been done, for instance, with the French system; details, on the other hand, could be, and were, borrowed. The net results therefore of these enquiries, were that for national education America, and for higher education Germany, should

be followed; that foreign teachers should be engaged, as well as Japanese students sent abroad; and that neither the religious teaching maintained by some countries, nor the higher education of American women, were adapted to Japanese requirements. The commissioners returned to Japan in February 1873, after an absence of seventeen months, and re-organisation was pushed forward in every sphere. The result for a time was a chaos of incessant changes, out of which order and system were gradually evolved. But as it was her military and naval weakness which first drove Japan into the Western path, so military and naval re-organisation claimed her first care, and appealed more especially to the national spirit; and it does not follow that everything in Japan has as yet reached the same high standard of efficiency as that displayed by her army and navy.

Educational
Rescript,
1872.

III.—Modern Education in Japan since 1872.

32. Whilst the embassy was still abroad the first educational code of Japan was published (1872), along with an Imperial Rescript defining its object as follows:—

“The acquisition of knowledge is essential to a successful life. All knowledge, from that necessary for daily life to that higher knowledge necessary to prepare officials, farmers, merchants, artisans, physicians, etc., for their respective vocations is acquired by learning. A long time has elapsed since schools were first established. But for farmers, artisans, and merchants, as well as for women, learning was regarded as beyond their sphere. Even among the higher classes much time was spent in the useless occupation of writing poetry and composing maxims, instead of learning what would be for their own benefit, or for that of the State. Now an educational system has been established, and the schedules of study re-modelled. *It is designed henceforth that education shall be so diffused that there may not be a village with an ignorant family, nor a family with an ignorant member.* Persons who have hitherto applied themselves to study have almost always looked to the Government for their support. This is an erroneous notion proceeding from long abuse, and every person should henceforth endeavour to acquire knowledge by his own exertions.”

The state of
education at
the time.

33. This document, which carries somewhat of a sting in its tail, is chiefly remarkable for the sentence italicized above, ambitious words, which nevertheless Japan has come as near to fulfilling as any nation could have done in 30 years. It

is of interest to ask in this connection what proportion of the nation was reached by the old system of schools. Practically all the *samurai* could read and write. For the rest of the population no statistics, of course, are available, but there is this clue. On the abolition of feudalism a system of military conscription was introduced, the conscripts being drawn from all classes; and it was found that between 30 and 40 per cent. of them had had some education. This agrees roughly with the educational returns of 1873, which give 40 per cent. of boys as attending school. Girls, it need hardly be said, were in a worse position; in 1873 only 15 per cent. were under instruction. Still, if a third of the male population, and of the female perhaps a sixth, had received some schooling, it is evident that the indigenous institutions provided a very fair basis on which a system of general education might be reared. To them the last few years had added a number of schools in which foreign languages and foreign science were studied, but these had been practically limited to the *samurai*. Such was the state of affairs when the Rescript of 1872 appeared; and now its boast has been so far realized that over 90 per cent. of the children of school age, boys and girls, are attending the prescribed course.

34. The Code of 1872 is said to have shown French influence in a marked degree. The military prestige of France, and the Imperial form of her Government, had naturally attracted the attention of the Japanese, besides which the French educational code was clearly defined, and easily admitted of translation and comprehension. At the same time, in the working out of the scheme many details were borrowed from America, through the influence of Verbeck and other advisers. The Code prescribed that the country should be divided into 8 grand school districts, each with a university and a bureau of school inspection. The grand school district was to be divided into 32 middle school districts, and each of these into 216 primary school districts. Thus there were to be 8 universities, 256 middle schools, and

Educational
Code of 1872.

57,360 primary ones. The programme was sufficiently ambitious; thirty years later only 2 out of the 8 universities had materialized, together with 222 public middle schools, and about 27,000 primary. On the other hand, a large number of technical schools of various kinds had been organized, which formed no part of the original scheme. At the outset a great difficulty was the dearth of suitable teachers and text-books. Many of the old teachers of Chinese were quite useless in the new surroundings, and were swept away; but the best of the indigenous school-masters were taken into the service of the new Department, until teachers could be trained on the new lines. Their schools probably went on in much the same way as before; but text-books were translated by degrees from foreign originals, whilst more advanced students used books written in English.

German
influence on
education.

35. From the promulgation of the Code of 1872 the development of education up to the present time can only be briefly traced, for want of the Ministerial reports referring to the first 20 years, and also because the events of that period already seem such ancient history to the Japanese that it is difficult to find any one acquainted with their details. If, as has been often said, the Japanese have shown themselves conscientious followers of the apostolic maxim, "Prove all things," they have paid almost equal attention to that other injunction, to "forget those things which are behind." In 1873 Mr. Tanaka returned from abroad, with a considerable admiration for American school-methods, and with Mr. Murray as his adviser. By this time France had fallen from her high estate in Europe, and German ideals became increasingly prominent in Japan. The army was handed over to German instructors; and the young men, previously sent to Paris, now tended towards Germany, which was cheaper to live in, and presented fewer temptations. These tendencies were strengthened when Marquis Ito, after searching round the world for a constitution for Japan, drafted one in which the influence of

Prussia was predominant. And, finally, there is the acknowledged pre-eminence of Germany in many branches of knowledge, theoretical and practical. It is not surprising, therefore, that the higher education of Japan has become increasingly Germanized. The German text-books, again, are considered more systematic than others, and easier for a foreigner to grasp. Thus, whenever I asked the reason for the Germanic tendencies of Japanese education, I was invariably told, first, that Germany was so systematic; and secondly, that she held the leading position in such or such a branch. And, of course, the young men who are sent to Germany to study the art of teaching or any other subject, bring back German methods and ideas with them, which they utilise during their obligatory term of service as instructors. But whilst these tendencies have been at work above, in the lower grades of education American influence has been very visible, the majority of foreign teachers having always been Americans. Japan, however, could not afford to follow America in making a large part of education free; and even when primary education was made (in name) compulsory, fees continued to be levied on a large proportion of the children until recently.

* 36. From the general obscurity of this period a few details emerge; for instance, one of the earliest institutions established was a school for boys and girls of the nobility, out of which the present Peers' and Peeresses' schools have grown. Before long a new code was drafted by Mr. Murray, the superintendent of education, but it was never put into force; and the execution of the original code of 1872 was hurried forward without much regard to local expediency, until public feeling was excited against it. A new code was therefore issued in 1879, which paid greater regard to local circumstances, but was understood to leave education entirely in the hands of the people, thus causing some slackness in respect of instruction and management.* This code, however, though technically introduced, was never actually

Progress
from 1872
to 1884.

* *Education in Japan*, 1904.

enforced; for Viscount Tanaka was transferred to another office, and a re-action set in against the policy of decentralisation. Consequently the next year (1880) witnessed a third code, the details of which have been worked out and improved by degrees. Owing to inexperience, want of teachers and of money, and the somewhat chaotic condition of the country, the two former codes in many respects never got beyond the paper on which they were written; they were premature. But the code of 1880 exercised a decisive influence on Japanese education. It made a selection from various foreign systems, no one of which can be said to have predominated; and since then, as it was put to use, the system as a whole has been essentially Japanese, digested out of materials supplied by Japan herself, China, and Western nations. Under this code the primary school districts and courses of study were left to be fixed by the local authorities, who entered upon their work with such energy that complaints were soon heard of the excessive burden of the school-rates, aggravated by the fluctuations of the currency. Accordingly the code was revised in the direction of simplicity and economy in 1884. The percentage of children receiving primary instruction, estimated at 28 in 1873, had risen in 1883 to 51, a point not reached again for nearly ten years.

Reforms
of 1886.

37. In 1885 the system of Government was entirely re-cast, a Cabinet of the modern type being introduced, and Arinori Mori became Minister for Education. A man of resolute character, he exercised the greatest influence on education, working a revolution, not so much in principles as in the mode of carrying them out. The following year, therefore, saw the issue of Imperial Ordinances dealing with every branch of education. A University Hall for post-graduate work was added to the Imperial University; the pupils in normal schools were to be relieved of expense, and higher normal schools established; the expenses of primary education were to be defrayed mainly out of the tuition fees; ordinary middle schools were limited to one for each prefecture; and higher middle schools were to be established to prepare students for the University, or to give them pro-

fessional education. Courses of study, standards, and text-books were to be prescribed, or at any rate approved, by the Minister. The burden of work on the pupils about this time must have been heavy; in addition to the various branches of science studied, English had been introduced into the primary curriculum, and the middle-school boy was compelled to study two foreign languages. Nor was their physical condition so well looked after then as it is now. It is not surprising that the burden was found excessive. The second foreign language was removed from the middle-school course in 1894 (though there are still a few boys who learn two); and English is now taught in only 530 of the public higher primary schools out of a total of over 8,000.

38. Primary education was already in name compulsory, but in 1890 steps were taken to secure the attendance of children at school until they had completed the ordinary course, covering either 3 or 4 years according to circumstances. The percentage of children attending at that time was only 49, but it has steadily risen since then (except for one year, 1895), until it is now 91, for boys and girls together. At the same time a standard outline of the primary course was laid down; the position of teachers was improved by a law relating to pensions; and the Emperor issued a famous Rescript on morals in education which has since been made the basis in all schools for the teaching of morality and patriotism. Statistics of illiteracy from two of the prefectures show that the proportion of persons who could not write their names had fallen from 390 to 320 per thousand between the years 1887 and 1892, two-thirds of them being females.* About this time also technical instruction was taken in hand, and becomes increasingly prominent in the annual reports. Already in 1893 supplementary technical schools had been established, to enable boys to keep up their primary schooling and at the same time acquire some practical skill; and in 1894

* In British India the number of illiterates is 898 per 1,000 males, and 993 per 1,000 females.

arrangements were made to aid technical education out of the national treasury to the extent of £15,000 a year, a grant now more than doubled. But the great extension in this sphere took place after the successful war with China (1894-95), when not only did the rest of the world "find" Japan, but, what was of even more importance, Japan found herself. The sudden development of national self-consciousness led the Japanese to look abroad, and their entrance upon the arena of world-politics and world-commerce was accompanied by a very general feeling of the increased necessity of education, general or special. The subsequent growth, as measured by the numbers of schools and scholars, is astonishing; and the people at large, no longer complaining of the heavy burdens they had to bear, showed themselves more and more willing to contribute the funds needed for educational expansion. A second Imperial University was founded; restrictions on the multiplication of middle-schools were removed; the spread of secondary schools for girls, which had languished somewhat through an anti-foreign reaction, was insisted on; and a system of school doctors was introduced. The whole of technical education was dealt with in 1899. In 1900 primary schools were taken in hand again; the obligatory period was extended to four years, and was ordered to be made free as far as possible, the increased expenditure falling mainly on the cities, towns and villages. At the same time the schools were encouraged to establish a higher, or supplementary, course of two years, in the hope that before long circumstances might permit of the obligatory period being extended to six years; and the regulations relating to examinations, standards, and the number of Chinese characters to be learned, were thoroughly revised, with a leaning towards mercy. In the following year (1901) it was the turn of the secondary schools, amongst which there was thought to be too much diversity of standard, and accordingly standard outlines of the course of study were drawn up for boys and girls respectively. The great development of technical schools of all kinds rendered unnecessary the arrange-

ments by which middle-school boys were allowed the option of taking up certain technical subjects, and the secondary course was made uniform for all once more. Throughout the whole period the normal schools had been working away steadily and additional methods had been devised for increasing the supply of teachers; but there are still districts which do not find it necessary to arrange for the special training of female teachers. Lastly, repeated difficulties over the supply of text-books, combined with a great educational scandal, have led the Department to introduce a system of State text-books for primary schools. Summarised, the tendencies of the last ten years seem to be mainly these: to improve general education in quantity and quality; to provide abundant facilities for professional and technical training; to watch over the physical condition of the pupils; and to reduce mental strain by minimising examinations and competition, and raising the quality of the teaching.

- 39. This rapid survey of 20 or 30 years of educational movement naturally passes over a multitude of minor changes, which have succeeded each other with the rapidity characteristic of Japan. With the whole world to choose from, with a dozen educational systems translated into Japanese, with foreign advisers drawn from various quarters, and with the frequent advent of a new Minister anxious to signalize his administration, it is not surprising that the experiments should have been many, or the changes incessant. But amid all the fluctuations of detail, the leaders of Japan cannot be said to have wavered in their main objects, to enable her to hold her own with the other nations of the world in peace and in war, and to instil into her children those principles of loyalty, patriotism, and self-help, to which their country owes so much today. Communistic by nature like all the societies of Asia, where man tends to lean upon his family, his clan or caste, or the community at large, and to look to the Government for assistance in all his doings, Japan by the circumstances of her re-opening was brought under the influence of the individualistic ideals of the Anglo-Saxon

General aims
of educational
policy.

nations ; and her statesmen have endeavoured to excite in their fellow-countrymen something of the Anglo-Saxon spirit of self-reliance and free competition. In this they have been only partially successful ; in some ways the communistic spirit is still strong, and school-boys as well as adults still tend to move in groups. But they have at least managed to ward off what threatened to be a serious danger, the tendency to look upon education as the natural portal to a post under Government, and to that only.

Education and
Government
service.

40. In Japan, as in India, almost all who attend the higher institutions are qualifying themselves to earn a living ; and the public service was at one time the most secure, dignified, and attractive of livings. That the reward of education is an official post was a thoroughly Confucian principle which still flourishes in China. Japan indeed was never afflicted with a bureaucracy comparable with that of China. Still, her *samurai* were both the educated and the official class ; they had been provided with a free education, and with a suitable position in the retinue of their feudal lord ; and they were totally unfitted to earn their living in any other way. With the new era all this was changed. "Hitherto," said the Rescript of 1872, "students have always looked to the Government for their support ; henceforth they should endeavour to acquire knowledge by their own exertions." Feudalism was abolished, and with it the privileges and hereditary incomes of the *samurai* ; despising work, and ignorant of business, many fell into great poverty and misery. The Government had no room for old-fashioned persons, trained on Chinese lines ; it was compelled to employ young men educated for the new environment. "Though the eagle be starving, he will not eat grain," was the motto of some of those who were thus dispossessed of their former rights ; discontent, rebellions, assassinations followed, but victory remained with the new order. At that time the university was practically a school for turning out Government officials, who gradually took the place of the hundreds of foreigners at first employed ; the *samurai*, now

called *shizoku*, supplying perhaps 80 per cent., a proportion which declined as the *heimin*, or commoners, began to take advantage of their new rights, until now there are probably more commoners than gentry in the public service.* This circumstance of itself drove the *samurai* to seek new spheres of activity; but the idea still persisted among all the educated, of whatever class, that for an educated man the public service was the only service; and as the ranks of Government officials filled up, there arose a new class of malcontents, young men who had obtained some education, but who were not able, or not qualified, to obtain posts. Hence came the *soshi*, a class of political rowdies, who became notorious some years ago, but of whom little is heard now. The removal of feudal restrictions on travel and occupations; the efforts of Fukuzawa and other influential men to develop the spirit of self-help, and to turn young men to professional and commercial careers; the influence of English economic doctrines; and, I suppose, a certain amount of common sense on the part of those concerned; all tended to the solution of the problem. But it would scarcely have been solved so rapidly, but for the enormous expansion of Japanese life in the last few years; it is the opening up of numerous industries and professions which at present affords plenty of room for those qualified to avail themselves of it, and until this came about the mere provision of technical schools and the like produced little effect. The medical profession, for instance, has still many openings for men of ability; the railways† have employed a large number; and the directors of commercial and technical schools can usually place their graduates without much difficulty, in some cases receiving applications for them in advance. Another powerful influence must be mentioned; Government service may be honourable, but it is not lucrative. The public

* Of the members of the lower house in the first Imperial Diet only one-third were *shizoku*.

† Thirty years ago there were 18 miles of railway; now there are 4,000.

service, indeed, is wretchedly paid; and Japanese officials are usually too loyal and clean-handed to resort to those subsidiary methods of enriching themselves which prevail in China. Hitherto they have been content with very small salaries, knowing that their country was poor and in need of all her resources for strengthening herself against the possibility of foreign aggression. But the recent growth of material wealth has caused many young men to turn their eyes to the more remunerative paths of commerce, technics, or industry; and the colleges of literature or science no longer attract the ablest or the most ambitious of the university students. Whatever we may think of this change morally, it has at least powerfully reinforced the influences previously mentioned in removing a source of considerable embarrassment to the Government.

Statistics of
recent educa-
tional expan-
sion.

41. Casting his eyes over the whole century, Mr. Clement draws the following contrast, material and intellectual:—

"A Japanese student of 1801 was compelled to study at night by the dull light of a pith wick floating in vegetable oil, or by the fitful flame of fifty fireflies imprisoned in a bamboo cage. The student of 1901 burned midnight oil from Russia or America, or studied by the aid of gas or electric light. The studies in 1801 were confined to Japanese and Chinese classics, but in 1901 they included the whole range of Eastern and Western learning; and one school in Tokyo tried to attract students by assuming the name *School of One Hundred Branches*!"*

But a few figures will illustrate as well as anything what has happened within a few years only, namely, since the war with China. Primary schools have increased from 23,000 to 27,000, and the percentage of children receiving instruction from 58 to 91; secondary schools for boys have risen from 74 to 258, those for girls from 28 to 80, and technical schools of various kinds from 100 to 850. The budget of the Educational Department in 1893 was about £133,000, in 1902 it reached £700,000. In 1893, again, the educational expenditure of local bodies was about £1,000,000; it is now about £4,400,000, forming 21 per

* *Handbook of Modern Japan*, page 285.

cent. of the total local expenditure. But speedy as the growth has been, we need not therefore look upon it with doubt, or fear that Japan will go back upon her steps. "The bamboo lacks not strength because of the rapidity of its growth; it is inflexible as steel, though it may sway idly in the wind." *

Chapter II.—GENERAL OUTLINE OF THE SYSTEM.

42. Japan proper consists of four large islands, the main island, Hokkaido (formerly Yezo), Kyushu, and Shikoku, and a multitude of small ones; the recently acquired island of Formosa being in such a different position, that it is understood to be excluded from all Japanese statistics unless expressly mentioned. The area is about 147,000 square miles; the population 46 or 47 millions, more than that of the British Isles, and considerably more than that of France. A comparison with the chief provinces of British India shows that Japan approximates most closely to Madras in area, to the United Provinces in population; whilst British India as a whole has a population five times as great. That of Japan has increased very rapidly since the new era; from 33 millions in 1872 it had grown to 35 in 1879, to 40 in 1889, and to 44 in 1899. Males predominate by four or five hundred thousand. Until recently the rural population was in the vast majority; but from 1890 to 1898 the rate of increase was about 33 per thousand in the urban districts as against 10 in the rural districts, a difference which may be attributed to the steady growth of trade and industry in towns, and the consequent immigration of the rural population. Of the three social classes, the nobility number between four and five thousand; the *shizoku*, or gentry (formerly *samurai*), are over two millions; and the remainder, amounting now to 44 millions or more, are the *heimin*, or commoners.

43. For the purposes of administration the old division into provinces has been replaced by one into prefectures. The northern island, Hokkaido, the last refuge of the "hairy Ainu," being

* A. M. Knapp.

less developed than the rest, is administered in a slightly different fashion ; but practically it may be regarded as a prefecture, only a very large one. The rest of Japan proper is divided into 46 prefectures, of which 43 are called *Ken*, and 3 *Fu* (Tokyo, Kyoto, and Osaka). The prefecture is subdivided into rural districts (*Gun*, sometimes translated counties), cities, towns, and villages ; the 3 *Fu* have urban as well as rural districts. In all there are 638 rural districts, 58 cities, 1,054 towns, and 13,468 villages. The distinction between a town and a village is not always drawn in the same way. In many parts any number of houses up to a thousand constitutes a village, and the average population per house in the country being 5.75, this would give from 5 to 6 thousand as the maximum population of a village. But in mountainous regions, where the people are more scattered, 300 houses may be the limit of a village. If we omit the 3 *Fu*, Okinawa *Ken* (the Luchu islands), and Hokkaido, all of which are exceptional in various ways, the remaining 42 prefectures contain an average of 2,550 square miles, and 12 rural districts, apiece ; whilst each district would have an average area of 210 square miles. The same 42 prefectures in 1898 had a population of 39 millions, giving an average of 927,000 for the prefecture, and 76,000 for the district ; but in this last some allowance must be made for the cities which, administratively, stand apart from the districts.

Localadminis-
tration.

44. At the head of each prefecture is a Governor, who is assisted by a permanent council, and by a local assembly convoked at fixed periods to pass the local budget, and discuss affairs of local importance. Similarly, each district, city, town, or village has its headman or mayor, together with a council or assembly of some kind. The central Government retains an ultimate power of control over all these bodies, but under ordinary circumstances leaves them to exercise self-government as far as possible. In the matter of education pressure has had to be employed sometimes, for instance to secure a proper system of inspection, or to promote female education.

45. At present the educational system rests more on Imperial Ordinances than on acts of the legislature, which indeed has only defined the aid to be given to technical schools, and the duties of "juridical persons," such as towns and villages. In its organization the ideal laid down by the Imperial Rescript of 1872 has been kept steadily in view, lower and higher being developed together, and a complete chain of connecting institutions established. The necessity of trained teachers was appreciated early; normal schools date from 1872, and the higher normal school for training secondary teachers from 1886, whilst special training institutes have been added. The last few years have seen a great development of practical and technical education, with the result that Japan now possesses a remarkably complete system,—complete in the sense of affording educational facilities of many kinds and various grades. It is also a very uniform system, too uniform indeed for some people who would prefer greater independence of rules. But the Japanese enjoy one obvious advantage over India, in that they are a single homogeneous people, speaking the same language, following the same customs, eating the same food; for the differences of local dialect and usage are slight, and the dwindling aboriginals of the northern island of no importance. Hence there is only one educational system, not a number as in India. This system, like the whole of the Japanese administration, is closely supervised by the central authority, which prescribes many of the details, as well as the general policy to be followed. Lastly, it is wholly modern, the creation of the last 30 years. A few, indeed, of "miscellaneous" schools are said to be little better than the old writing-schools, but such survivals are rare and feeble. Practically every school in Japan whether its curriculum be wide or narrow, is based on modern requirements.

The organization of education.

46. Besides the schools of which the Educational Department takes cognisance, there are some of a special character under other Departments of State, such as the Imperial Household, the Army and Navy, the Interior, Agriculture and

Classification by management.

Commerce, and Communications. These being excluded, in 1903 there were in Japan 30,420 schools (including kindergartens), of which 94 per cent. were under public management; the private schools being less than 1,800 in number. Those under public management include the Government schools, and those which are "public" in a narrower sense, *i. e.*, managed by local bodies, such as prefectures, or towns and villages. The Government schools are managed by the Educational Department, and supported by sums voted by the Diet. They are 42 in number and include 2 universities, 8 higher schools, 3 higher normal schools (with primary and secondary schools attached to them), 8 training institutes, 8 special schools, 7 technical schools, and 1 school for the blind and dumb. The public schools, maintained by local authorities out of local funds, include all the normal schools, and the vast majority of primary, secondary, and technical schools; also 1 for the blind and dumb, 4 special schools, 183 kindergartens, and 423 "miscellaneous," chiefly of an elementary kind. Broadly speaking, normal and secondary schools fall to the share of prefectures, primary schools to that of cities, towns, and villages; technical schools are shared between them, and rural districts help as may be convenient. The Government takes charge of the highest branches of education. Lastly, there are the private schools, nearly 90 per cent. of which are classed as primary or miscellaneous; they are supported mainly by their tuition fees, supplemented by endowments, or (in the case of mission schools) by foreign contributions. From the time of Mr. Verbeck and his colleagues the missionaries have played an important part in the development of education in Japan. Their schools are less prominent now, partly because difficulties connected with religious teaching gave them a set-back, partly because the present excellence of the public schools renders it difficult for private agencies to compete with them. Yet there are some excellent secondary schools maintained by various missions, and enjoying the Government privileges mentioned below. But some of their most useful work has been done in connection with female education, the public system here being less advanced.

47. Besides the right of inspection the State has two means of controlling these private agencies, neither of which is financial. The first is through the higher institutions, to which the pupils of unrecognized schools are not admitted, unless after a qualifying examination for which a substantial fee is charged; the second is the liability to military service. Students of recognized institutions are allowed to postpone service until they have finished their studies, and also to serve for one year instead of three; and private schools find it almost impossible to retain their pupils unless they get themselves recognized by Government, most students not caring to have their studies interrupted by military service. There are not many like a young officer who fell before Port Arthur the other day, and of whom it is related that he deliberately suspended his studies in order to fulfil his term of service, on the ground that his duty to his country took precedence of everything.

48. No general system of grants-in-aid exists in Japan, but the national treasury contributes a considerable sum towards additional salaries and pensions for primary teachers; it pays the salaries of the directors of all normal schools; and it gives subventions in aid of technical and industrial education. These payments amount to the following:—

	£
For primary education ...	149,800
For normal schools ...	5,800
For technical education ...	31,800
<hr/>	
Total ...	187,400

The first item includes the proceeds of a sum of one million sterling set apart from the indemnity paid by China, the interest being lent to prefectures in proportion to the number of school-going children, to meet building and other expenses of primary education; but this sum is understood to have been returned to the Treasury in connection with the present war. To private schools other than technical no aid is

given by the Government, but the local authorities assist such as are employed as substitutes for public primary schools, and a few others.

Direction and
inspection.

49. Education is controlled by a department of State under a Cabinet Minister, who is assisted by a Vice-Minister, legal advisers, three chiefs of bureaux dealing with general, special, and technical schools, inspectors of schools, and a higher council of education which meets annually. The inspectors are five in number, the whole country being divided into five circuits. In each prefecture, again, the Governor is responsible for the local educational administration, and under him the mayors and other headmen. The prefectural office contains an educational section under a chief inspector, with two assistant inspectors. Each rural district also has its inspector. Roughly speaking, the departmental inspector completes a circuit in two years, the prefectural inspectors in one year whilst the district inspector should see the primary schools of his district several times in the course of a year.

Compulsory
education.

50. From the age of six every child is required to attend school until the completion of the ordinary elementary course, which normally occupies four years. The machinery for securing attendance is in charge of the mayor of the town or village; but moral suasion is employed rather than actual coercion, with the result that in 1903 of the boys 95 per cent., and of the girls 87 per cent. were in attendance, or a combined average of 91 per cent.

School
buildings.

51. Few schools can boast of brick buildings, Japan being a country of wooden architecture, largely on account of the frequent earthquakes. The risk of fire is great, but the tendency now is to isolate the school as far as possible, or to put it outside the town. Almost all schools own their buildings, which are put up cheaply enough, but look neat when comparatively fresh; older buildings get to look dingy, sometimes even slatternly, when furnished with sliding paper-covered windows, the paper of which has suffered from the ravages of the pupils. Some are left unpainted, many are painted a dark

grey, a few glitter in coats of white; the building may be single or double storied, with a heavy tiled roof, and probably consists of parallel rows of rooms connected by rough covered passages. The compound contains some simple gymnastic apparatus, perhaps a rude tennis court or two, and sufficient space for drilling, and for baseball; there is usually a large covered space for fencing, wrestling, and other exercises, and also a large hall where all the students can be assembled; at one end of the hall a curtain drawn before an alcove conceals the portrait of the Emperor. Primary schools, of course, may lack some of these accessories. Near the students' entrance will be shelves for their wooden clogs and paper umbrellas; and a room in which they wait during intervals. The classrooms open off from a corridor, along which spittoons are sometimes arranged at a convenient height; the rooms are admirably lighted from the sides or back, never from the front. In Tokyo and some other large centres there are arrangements for warming the building by steam in winter; but in the country, even in the bitter north, to learn to endure cold is considered part of the scholars' training. The pupils invariably sit at small tables or desks, sometimes singly, sometimes in pairs, the smallest in front. The black-boards are generally of good quality, and often extend right across the room. The walls are bare, but every school possesses maps and diagrams for use when necessary. For scientific teaching the space and equipment are especially liberal. The teachers have a room or rooms wherein to sit, with facilities for a supply of tea; the director has his own office. A characteristic feature is a frame filled with neat little wooden tablets, lacquered black, and bearing in red characters the names of the teachers, their hours, classes and subjects. Of the resources of civilisation, such as electric bells and telephones, full advantage is usually taken.

52. The disciplinary arrangements are much the same Discipline everywhere. Every pupil is required to produce two responsible persons (the parent or guardian naturally being one) as his "sureties" for the payment of fees and other obligations.

Within the school there is little of either reward or punishment. Corporal punishment is strictly forbidden; the penalties available being verbal admonition, detention in order to think over one's sins, suspension for a period varying from a week to a year, and expulsion. Fining is unknown. The general policy is to keep the pupils in order without punishments, and if that cannot be done, to get rid of them. Expulsion, therefore, is practically the only serious penalty, and that is not inflicted very often.

Academic
year.

53. There are in Japan two academic years, that of the lower institutions beginning in April, and that of the higher beginning in September. Originally the English plan of beginning the school year in September was introduced; then it was found more convenient in some cases to adopt the official year beginning in April; but why some schools should have made the change and not others, no one seemed able to explain. It results that the primary and secondary schools have their chief vacation at the end of the first term, and not at the end of their year; and also that a boy who graduates from the middle school at the end of March has to wait until September in order to join a higher institution.

Institutions
for general
education.

54. In respect of standard, the system may be divided into primary, secondary, and higher; in respect of object, into general and professional or technical. The Japanese reckon only the primary and secondary schools as being "general;" but following Indian practice we may say that the institutions for general education are kindergartens, primary schools (ordinary and higher), middle schools, girls' higher schools, higher schools, and the colleges of literature and science. The education of girls is rigorously separated from that of boys after the primary stage; and what are called middle schools in the case of boys are called higher schools in the case of girls, as though to mark the legitimate goal of female ambition. Female students are not admitted to the Government higher schools and colleges, but in 1901 a private

university for women was opened in Tokyo. For boys the above institutions form a complete chain, at each stage of which a limit of age for entrance is fixed; and a constant feature of the Japanese system is the provision of continuation or "post-graduate" courses in schools of almost every kind. Indian associations with such terms as middle or high school had better be dismissed, for it will be found that the Japanese terms represent very different standards.

55. The limits of age and the length of each stage are as follows :—

Limits of age,
and length
of course.

Kindergarten, age from 3 to 6.

Ordinary primary, 4 years; must be at least 6 to enter.

Higher primary, 2 to 4 years; must be at least 10.

Middle, 5 years; must be at least 12.

Higher, 3 years; must be at least 17.

University, 3 to 4 years; must be at least 19.

Post-graduate courses, 1 to 5 years.

Thus the full primary course is eight years, but many who are going on to the secondary school do so after the sixth or seventh year. Clever boys cannot now secure double promotion, as they do in India; promotion takes place only once a year, and the full number of years must be accomplished. Hence, if we neglect the kindergarten, the full course up to a university degree will take from 17 to 20 years, and a student will be at least 23 before he can take such a degree. As a matter of fact, the average age of those *entering* the university of Tokyo is 23. Some complain that the course is too long, but it is pointed out that the university graduate usually enters directly upon the practice of a profession, and that improved methods of teaching in the schools may be expected to reduce the average length of the course. As for the age limits, they seem to have come into existence from above downwards; that is, the university and the primary schools preceded their present connecting links, and the university had already established a certain standard when these links were devised. It was considered desirable, therefore, that those who entered the university should be of a

certain age; this in turn determined the age at which they could enter upon the three years' preparatory course, and this again determined the minimum age of admission to the middle school.

Primary
education.

56. The kindergarten is intended for infants between the ages of three and six. Games, singing, conversation, and hand-work are employed, but anything like school-work is forbidden. There are some 260 kindergartens, public and private, with 700 teachers and 24,000 infants, besides one maintained by Government in connection with the higher normal school for females; the public local expenditure on them is £10,000. Primary schools proper are of two grades, ordinary and higher, the full course covering 4 years in either. The ordinary course includes the reading and writing of Japanese, arithmetic, morals, and physical exercises, to which drawing, singing, manual work, and sewing may be added. There is no difference between town and rural standards; indeed, the course is so simple that it could not well be simplified further for country use. To the same subjects the higher course adds Japanese history, geography, science, drawing, singing, and sewing; and also either agriculture, commerce, manual work, or English. The last is attempted in comparatively few places, and the great majority of those who learn English begin it in the secondary school. Classes supplementary to each of the two grades are frequently held, for the benefit of children who for any reason cannot go on to the next regular stage. These classes are often held at night, especially in winter. There are 27,000 primary schools, with 109,000 teachers, and over 5 million children; supplementary courses being provided in nearly 2,400 cases. The public expenditure on them is £3,150,000. Both boys and girls are admitted to these schools; where the numbers are sufficient, they are taught in separate classes throughout, but it often happens that they are taken in the same classes for one or two years, even if they are separated later. After the primary stage the education of girls is kept quite distinct.

57. Middle schools, for boys only, have a course of 5 years ; candidates for admission must be over 12, and must have completed at least the second year of the higher primary course. They study morals, Japanese, Chinese classics, English, history, geography, arithmetic, algebra, plane and solid geometry, trigonometry, botany, zoology, physiology, mineralogy, physics, chemistry, drawing, singing, and physical exercises ; sometimes also German or French, and law and economics. Quarters are commonly provided for a portion of the boys. Owing to the number of applicants most middle schools hold an entrance examination ; and a feature of the course is the number of boys who drop off during the first two or three years. There are 258 of these schools, public or private, with 4,600 teachers, and over 94,000 boys ; the cost of the public ones being £474,000.

In higher schools for girls the qualifications for admission are similar, but the course usually covers 4 years only, and the standard is lower. The subjects are morals, Japanese, history, geography, mathematics, science, drawing, household management, sewing, music, and physical exercises ; sometimes also English. There are usually quarters for some of the girls. There are 80 of these schools, with 1,170 teachers (of whom 750 are women), and over 21,000 pupils. It will be seen that, in comparison with boys' schools, there are less than one-third of the number of schools, less than one-fourth of the number of pupils. The public local expenditure on them is £149,000.

58. Higher schools are eight in number, but one is in process of extinction ; they are now strictly preparatory to the university courses, except that one has a separate engineering department. The course covers 3 years, the students being divided into three sections, the first preparatory to the colleges of law and literature, the second to those of science, engineering, and agriculture, and the third to the colleges of medicine. The subjects vary accordingly, but foreign languages (especially English and German) are very prominent, in order to prepare the students for foreign lectures and foreign text-books at the university. The literature men, for instance, study morals, Japanese, Chinese classics, English, either German or French,

Secondary
education.

Higher
Schools.

history, logic and psychology, economics, and physical exercises. Candidates for admission must be at least 17, and must have completed the middle-school course. These schools are all Government institutions; they have 300 teachers and nearly 4,800 students, and spend £51,000.

Universities.

59. There are two Imperial Universities, one at Tokyo, the other, a less-developed institution, at Kyoto, costing between them £156,000 a year. Each consists of a "university hall" for research, and colleges representing different faculties, and is administered by a president and a university council, consisting of two representatives from each of the colleges, of which there are six at Tokyo, and four in the case of Kyoto. The Tokyo colleges represent law, literature, science, engineering, medicine, and agriculture, each being internally administered by its own faculty; those of Kyoto represent law, medicine (2), and science and engineering together. Candidates for admission must have completed the appropriate preparatory course in a higher school, and must be at least 19; but most of them are considerably older. The College of Literature at Tokyo offers courses in general, Chinese, or Hindu philosophy, in psychology, ethics, science of religion, æsthetics, pedagogics, sociology; Japanese, Chinese, or general history; Japanese, Chinese, Sanskrit, English, German, or French literature; and philology. The course in each case extends over at least three years. The period is the same in the College of Science, which, offers courses in astronomy, mathematics, physics, chemistry, zoology, botany, and geology. At the end of the college course a successful student may assume the title of *gakushi*, equivalent to a Master's degree, and can then, if he likes, proceed to a five years' course of post-graduate study in "University Hall," leading to a Doctor's degree (*hakushi*), the only one formally recognised. This "hall" is a mere name; in reality he attends such classes at his college as he pleases, or works under the guidance of some professor.

Besides the imperial universities there are several private ones, two at least of which enjoy a high reputation. These are the Keiogijiku and the Waseda, both in Tokyo, and both

offering courses in literature as well as other subjects. They attract a somewhat richer class of students than the Government colleges, and are able to charge higher fees. For the higher education of women, also, a private university has recently been opened.

60. We come now to the facilities for professional and technical education. The subject of law attracts a large number of students, and is commonly associated with politics and economics, the combination being popular because considered to qualify men for political or diplomatic careers, as well as for the legal profession proper. Some middle schools give a little instruction in law and economics in the fifth year of their course, but more commonly the subject is first taken up in the higher schools, where the elementary principles of law are taught as well as the literary subjects already mentioned. The Government colleges of law offer courses in law or politics extending over 3 years; in the former, besides the various codes, etc., Roman law and either English, French, or German law are compulsory. There are also numerous private schools of law.

Medicine is taught in a number of schools, public or private, in 5 Government schools, and in 3 colleges. Those who wish to enter the latter must first pass through a higher school, where they study morals, Japanese, German, either English or French, Latin, mathematics, physics, chemistry, zoology, botany, and physical exercises. The college course covers four years, and post-graduate study may be continued for another five. Those content with a lower qualification may from the middle school enter one of the special medical schools maintained by Government, or by public or private agencies.

Engineering is taught in a special department attached to the fifth higher school, in the agricultural school at Sapporo, in the higher technical schools of Tokyo and Osaka, and in the colleges of the imperial universities; some instruction in its more rudimentary forms being also given in industrial schools. The college at Tokyo offers courses in civil engineering, mechanical engineering, naval architecture, technology of arms,

electrical engineering, architecture, applied chemistry, technology of explosives, and mining and metallurgy. Each course presupposes a preparatory period of 3 years in a higher school, and itself covers 3 years.

Technical
education.

61. Of technical education the principal branches are agriculture, commerce, industry, nautical matters, and art. In a country like Japan the subject of agricultural education is justly considered one of great importance, and the agricultural school at Sapporo, in Hokkaido, is one of the oldest of the educational institutions. Some elementary instruction in the subject is given in some of the higher primary schools, but few of them have any garden for practical work. There are also some hundreds of supplementary agricultural schools, and about 50 of "class B," all of elementary grade; but the term agriculture is loosely used to cover as well sericulture, forestry, veterinary science, and even fishing. There are nearly 60 such schools of secondary grade, with a course of 3 years, including morals, Japanese, mathematics, physics, chemistry, natural science, economics, and physical exercises, as well as the practical subjects concerned. Candidates for admission must have completed the full primary course, and be over 14. Higher education in this subject is supplied in three Government institutions, the agricultural college at Tokyo (which can only be entered after 3 years in a higher school), the Sapporo agricultural school, and the Morioka higher school of agriculture and forestry. These higher institutions aim chiefly at training teachers and experts; the lower ones are frequented by boys of the farmer class, and are said to be producing a good effect on agriculture at large; the farmers being also reached by itinerant lecturers, and numerous agricultural institutes and experimental stations.

Commercial education, again, has received much attention so as to enable Japan to hold her own in international trade, and to dispense if possible with the foreign middleman. Elementary instruction is given in some of the higher primary schools; and belonging to this grade there are also about 80 supplementary commercial schools, and 17 of "class B." Of secondary grade there are 41, with a three years' course, for

those who have completed the full primary course. Advanced instruction is given in higher commercial schools at Tokyo and Kobe. These various institutions attract a large number of pupils, and their graduates are gladly taken up by business houses and shops.

Industrial schools are of various grades. In the lowest class are a number of supplementary schools for technical instruction, and 33 apprentices' schools; morals, Japanese, and arithmetic are usually added to the practical work, sometimes also a little science. Middle grade schools number 25, and have turned out a number of foremen and managers of factories and workshops. The course commonly covers 3 years, and includes morals, Japanese, mathematics, physics, chemistry, drawing, and physical exercise, as well as technical subjects. These last are generally related to the local industries, and the instruction is usually free; these schools are the industrial schools proper. For advanced work there are higher technical schools at Tokyo, Osaka and Kyoto, besides the engineering school and colleges already referred to. Teachers for the lower schools are largely drawn from the higher technical schools, especially that at Tokyo, on which alone more than £13,000 are expended annually.

Nautical education is considered of importance from the geographical position of Japan, her immense coast-line, and the carrying-trade she has already achieved and hopes to extend. The Educational Department controls 7 such schools of secondary grade, and 1 of lower rank; whilst the Department of Communications maintains an admirable mercantile marine school at Tokyo, with a sea-going vessel attached to it. The training of engineers is provided for, as well as that of deck-officers. The navy has its own schools and colleges, which do not fall within the scope of this report.

Lastly, two institutions for education in fine arts are maintained by the Government, the Tokyo Fine Art school, and the Tokyo Academy of Music. The former trains professional artists and teachers of drawing, in both Japanese and European styles, the latter, besides general courses, includes a normal

course for the training of music teachers for schools. In addition, the application of art to industry is dealt with in many of the technical schools.

Education
of special
classes.

62. There are in Tokyo two schools for the sons and daughters, respectively, of the nobility, controlled by the Imperial Household; but the aristocracy also avail themselves of the ordinary institutions. At the other end of the social scale, the weakening of the prejudice against the outcast *Eta* has rendered it unnecessary to retain any special schools for them; they do not, however, mix with the other children, and are somewhat backward about appearing at school when the proper age arrives. The aboriginal Ainu, now found only in Hokkaido, have of late been provided with special schools or classes, where they are taught in Japanese; they are given 5 years instead of 4, and are encouraged to practise agriculture; but the race seems doomed to extinction. There remains the class of defectives, the blind and deaf-mutes, for whom a little is now done. The Government maintains a good school for them in Tokyo, and there are 18 others, all but one under private management; the number of pupils being over a thousand in all. The blind in Japan have a practical monopoly of massage and one or two other employments, by which a large number earn a respectable living.

Teachers.

63. The teachers employed in primary schools are more than 109,000 in number; secondary schools account for nearly 6,000; and the higher schools and imperial universities have 650 professors. The total number of teachers is 127,000, of whom 21,000 (or 16·5 per cent.) are females, chiefly employed in primary education. The number of foreigners is small; middle schools, with more than 4,600 teachers, show only 32 foreigners; girls' schools have only 3 out of 1,150; the higher schools have 24 out of 300; and the two universities 18 out of 350. They are chiefly employed in connection with the teaching of foreign languages. Of the Japanese teachers in the higher grades a good many have had some training in Europe or America. Secondary teachers are often graduates of the universities or higher normal schools; primary teachers should

have a licence, granted to graduates of normal or certain other schools, or to those who have passed a certain test; but the supply of fully qualified teachers is far short of the demand. At present there are 50 normal schools for men, and 34 for women, with a course of 4 years for the former and 3 years for the latter; but to meet the shortage of teachers special courses of little more than two years have been introduced, as well as special training institutes. In technical schools of all sorts teachers are largely drawn from the higher schools of a corresponding character. Every school of any size has at its head a "director," who in many cases limits himself to administrative work, and does no teaching, unless it be "morals." It is he who practically appoints or dismisses the teachers, subject to the general approval of the controlling authority, and it is he who engages a foreign instructor, if one is required.

64. • In 1873 the number of students was estimated at 400,000; Students.

in 1892 there were over 3 millions; and now there are 5 millions and a half, or about 12 per cent. of the population. They are easily identified by their German-looking caps, if by nothing else; the girls generally wear a claret-coloured skirt. They are encouraged to walk, not to ride; to wear simple clothes; to endure rain and cold patiently. In class they are usually quiet in manner, orderly, studious; corporate feeling is strong, and to it even the teacher must pay regard. After the day's work a few are told off to sweep each room and corridor, and on Saturdays to wash them down. There is plenty of military drill, too, and a display of military discipline. Nevertheless, there is also plenty of insubordination, though less than there was some years ago; and let a class or school come to the conclusion that a teacher or director is incompetent, or over-strict, or otherwise objectionable, and by organized disturbances and "strikes" they are likely to give him no peace until he goes.

65. Examinations are not held on the colossal scale familiar Examinations, in India. A great deal of latitude is left to the teacher, but set examinations are now forbidden in primary schools, promotion and graduation being settled by the teacher's daily marks, or

general impressions. In secondary schools an examination is commonly held at the end of each term, but sometimes at irregular intervals without notice, and in other cases they are to be abolished. Even when they are held, the marks are not always taken into account. Higher schools and colleges have terminal or annual examinations. But all through the scale the examination is conducted *in situ* by the teacher himself; and though the standard is commonly fixed at 60 per cent., the small proportion of failures would seem to indicate that the papers are leniently marked. At the universities the examinations are frequently oral, not written. The marks are not published, or classified in any way; and except one at the top of the class who may be excused his fees in the following year, or receive other rewards, a student does not know where he passed.

There are also entrance examinations, for instance at the middle and higher schools, due to the inability of the schools to receive all who apply for admission; they are, therefore, of the nature of an accident. Each school holds its own examination, with the exception of the eight higher schools, the 4,500 candidates for which are examined simultaneously at eight centres.

Text-books.

66. The provision of school-books has given rise to considerable trouble, and at least one great scandal; bad paper and bad printing were complained of, as well as other defects. For primary schools the Department is now issuing a series of text-books of its own. For secondary schools a full syllabus was prepared, for both boys and girls, and private individuals have composed text-books in accordance with it. These and others are recommended in an official list. But if a teacher dislikes the book recommended, he can teach his subject in his own way, so long as he follows the general lines of the syllabus; and he has no fads of outside examiners to consider. Almost all of these books are produced in Japan, though some of them may be translated, imitated, or adapted from foreign works; and the foreign educational publisher seems to have little scope here, whether for books, maps, diagrams, or models.

• Even the human skeleton with which most schools are pro-

vided is made in Japan,—of paper. The universities do not trouble to prescribe text-books; there, and in the higher schools, the instructors are left very free, teaching mainly by lectures, supplemented by such books as they choose to recommend, and the teachers of languages can select such authors as they prefer, or as the booksellers can supply.

67. The subject of school hygiene has received much attention, every effort being made to improve the physique of those who will in due course have to serve in the army or navy. The constant physical exercises in the schools seem already to have produced a beneficial effect upon the race; various forms of outdoor amusements are encouraged, and long walking excursions are quite a feature of school life; class-rooms and dormitories are usually well lighted and ventilated; and as far as possible a doctor is attached to every school. The physical condition of the pupils is examined once or twice a year, and the results tabulated. Every school is supplied with adequate sanitary arrangements and the students are conspicuously clean in their habits. School hygiene.

68. The cost of Government schools not under the Department of Education being excluded, as well as the contribution of the Home Department towards the cost of local school inspection, the public expenditure on education in 1902-1903 appears to have been about £5,200,000; rather less than £800,000 being expended by the Department, rather more than £4,400,000 by public bodies. Primary schools absorbed over 60 per cent. of the total, secondary schools for boys 9 per cent., and those for girls nearly 3; technical schools spent over 5 per cent., and normal schools about the same; whilst the Department itself and the Government schools together accounted for 12 per cent. This expenditure is met by taxation, fees, endowments (which, however, are rare), and gifts. In the case of the Government schools the income was about £80,000, about half of which may be supposed to have been derived from fees. For the public schools fuller details are available; here over 10 per cent. came from fees, 3 per cent. from gifts, 1 per cent. from school property, about $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. from the national Finance.

treasury, and over 2 per cent. from other sources, leaving nearly 82 per cent. of the total to be met out of local rates and taxes. If the local taxation is distributed among the various bodies, it appears that towns and villages contributed 63 per cent., cities 9, rural districts 2, and prefectures 26. The donations of money, land, etc., may be taken as a mark of the public interest in education. Japan is a poor country, but in six years of which I took a note these gifts amounted to about £600,000. Lastly, a broad distribution of the sources of the total expenditure yields the following percentages for Japan and British India respectively:—

	Japan.	British India.
Government	13.6	26
Local bodies	69.6	21
Fees	9.8	32
Other sources	7.0	21

Fees.

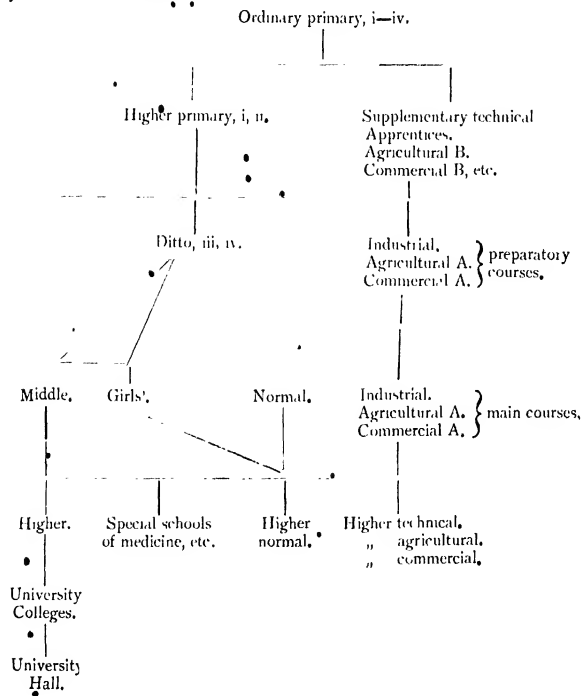
69. Fees are now remitted as far as possible in the ordinary primary schools, attendance at which is supposed to be obligatory; but towns and villages are allowed some latitude in this matter, in accordance with their financial circumstances from year to year. In 1902 only about 14 per cent. of the children paid any fee, the average monthly rate being about $2\frac{1}{2}$ pence. In higher primary schools the monthly fee is commonly from six pence to a shilling. Secondary schools charge boys or girls from 24 to 48 shillings a year; whilst in the Government higher schools and colleges the annual tuition fee is 50 shillings. Private institutions sometimes charge more than the public ones, without injuring their attendance.

Scholarships.

70. Partly from want of funds, and partly from a desire not to encourage excessive competition, there is little to be found in the way of scholarships or prizes. The head of a class is often excused his tuition-fee for the following year; the most distinguished graduates of certain institutions receive silver watches from the Emperor; but scholarships are few in number, and usually of the nature of a loan, to be repaid after graduation. They are, therefore, an assistance to poverty, rather than a reward of cleverness, or an incentive to work. The funds for these

scholarships are obtained sometimes from the resources of the school, sometimes from memorial funds, sometimes from sums contributed by former Daimyos, public bodies, or private individuals. Japanese students are capable of a good deal in the way of self-help, and a vast amount of private assistance is afforded to them in all sorts of ways, and by all sorts of people; but the whole apparatus of public rewards is discouraged. The reward to which a student looks forward is a fair opportunity of earning his living, and this in the Japan of today is usually forthcoming.

71. The following diagram shows the interconnection of the principal types of schools, the numerals indicating the years of the course:—



Contemplated
reforms.

72. The Japanese do not lay claim to that superhuman perfection which some of their admirers are fond of ascribing to them; in educational matters, on the contrary, there is a healthy dissatisfaction with what has been achieved, and on all sides projects of reform are discussed. The primary obligatory course is considered too short; with the work of the middle schools, especially in English, much dissatisfaction is expressed; the higher schools have not produced the results expected of them; and so on. It is possible also that the question of advanced female education may have to be taken up before long. Baron Sone has declared* "artificiality" to be the present characteristic of Japanese education; "it all looks very well on paper, but there is a lack of thoroughness about it." And Baron Kikuchi, a former Minister of education, says:—"We are beset by the evil of excessive cramming; in most of our elementary schools the books are galloped through, pupils being required to write down as much as possible of what falls from the teachers' lips." I should not myself have associated this last complaint with the primary schools, but Baron Kikuchi ought to know. It is understood that the Educational Department have prepared an extensive scheme of reform, which may be expected to include the extension of the obligatory period to six years; but the war has rendered it impossible to find the money for extensive and far-reaching changes.

Chapter III.—CONTROLLING AGENCIES.

The controlling
authorities.

73. As already stated, 94 per cent. of Japanese schools are directly managed by public authorities, national or local; private schools are liable to inspection, and if necessary to suppression, by the same. The controlling authorities therefore are, first, the Educational Department, with its headquarters at Tokyo; and secondly, the prefectural and other local offices.

* Watson, *Japan, Aspects and Destinies*, p. 210.

A.—The Central Authorities.

74. The Educational Department was founded in 1871, and has jurisdiction over the whole empire (except Formosa) in matters connected with education and learning; it therefore supervises, not only the majority of schools, but also public libraries, and various committees of a scientific character. At the head of it are a Minister of State and a Vice-Minister, who are assisted by chiefs of bureaux, councillors, inspectors, and a superior council of education. A cabinet minister receives an annual salary of £600, besides an official residence (which, however, he does not always occupy) and sundry allowances. The vice-minister is supposed to be independent of politics, but in practice is often changed in connection with those ministerial displacements which have caused some one to speak of Japanese politics as "kaleidoscopic." In ten years, from 1892 to 1901, the minister was changed 13 times, and the vice-minister 7 times, the latter being abolished altogether in 1900, but subsequently restored; and in one phenomenal year (1898) no less than 6 ministers and 3 vice-ministers held office. In the case of the army and navy these incessant changes proved so detrimental that those portfolios have been removed from the sphere of politics, and the ministers work directly under the Emperor; but education remains at the mercy of political fluctuations. The business of the Department is divided between the minister's cabinet and three bureaux, which deal respectively with general, special, and technical schools; the bureau of special schools having the universities and higher schools under it, as well as a number of other institutions. The minister's cabinet is directed by the vice-minister, and is divided into six sections, dealing with the official staff, the drafting of documents, finance, compilation, architecture, and hygiene. The councillors are legal advisers. The total number of officials of the Department proper is 127, receiving £8,300 in salaries; whilst the institutions under its control reckon 2,240 officials, drawing £154,000. Amongst them are over 70 foreigners. The Japa-

nese are arranged in four classes of official rank, according as they are appointed by the Emperor, by the Premier, or by the head of the Department, or are only temporarily engaged.

Departmental
inspectors.

75. The Department is kept in touch with the schools mainly by its inspectors, though tours are sometimes made by the minister or vice-minister and other officials, as also by professors, specially deputed for the purpose. In 1893 the inspectorate was abolished, "councillors" being ordered to undertake tours of inspection in addition to their other duties; but it was soon restored. At present for the purpose of inspection the whole country is divided into 5 circuits, with a departmental inspector in charge of each. He is supposed to make a complete tour of it every year, and after two years the inspectors should exchange circuits; but in practice these rules are not observed, as the circuit is too extensive, and the work too complicated, for a tour to be completed every year. Supposing schools to be equally distributed, there would be over 6,000 schools, with more than a million scholars, under each inspector. The latter, after each tour, should make an oral report to the minister, to be followed by fuller written reports. The inspectors are required to be acquainted with educational laws and regulations, with school management, and with methods of teaching; none of them possess technical knowledge, but technical professors are occasionally deputed. The following are qualified for appointment as inspectors:—(a) those who have served in Government schools for not less than two years as directors, or as instructors of the second official rank; (b) those who have served for not less than 3 years as directors of normal schools, or of public secondary or technical schools; (c) those who have been chief inspector of a prefecture for a year.

Superior
Council of
Education.

76. The superior council of education was organized, after a French model, in 1896, to discuss questions referred to it, or to tender advice to the minister; and was much enlarged in 1901. At present it consists of from 50 to 60 educational officials, to whom there may be added not more than

seven "men of learning or experience in education" to represent the public. The council contains representatives of the other Departments interested in education; of the Educational Department itself; of the principal Government schools; of the chief inspectors of prefectures; of normal, secondary, and technical schools; and of private schools. Those members who do not sit *ex-officio* are nominated by the Cabinet on the recommendation of the minister; whilst for the representatives of public schools their directors elect double of the required number, and the minister then makes his selection. The *ex-officio* members are about 30 in number; temporary members sit for one session only; the remainder for 3 years. At least one session must be held every year, lasting commonly for several days. The council discusses all sorts of questions connected with schools, curricula, hours, fees, text-books, qualifications of officials, etc. The proceedings are private; and the remuneration of the members is limited to £30 a year.

• 77. The Minister for Education has under his direct supervision a Board for licensing teachers after testing their qualifications, such licenses being valid for the whole country. The Board consists of a president, a manager, and four permanent members, sixty or more being added temporarily to deal with the applications, which number between four and five thousand a year. The other bodies connected with the Department are the Tokyo Academy, the Earthquakes Investigation Committee, the Central Meteorological Observatory, the Geodetic Committee, the Observatory for the Measurement of Latitudes, the Committee for the Compilation of Catalogues of Scientific Literature, the Japanese Language Investigation Committee, and the Imperial Library. These various bodies cost nearly £12,000 a year.

Boards and
Committees.

• 78. The educational press is free enough in criticising the Department, chiefly on the score of being rule-ridden, and out of sympathy with the leading teachers, or those on whose abilities and management the success of national education depends. One such writer pointed out that the Department and

Criticisms
of the Department.

educationists ought not to be considered enemies, but as "badgers belonging to the same hole;" and accused the authorities of holding themselves aloof, and so remaining ignorant of the real conditions to be legislated for. Others demand greater freedom, and protest against the reduction of the whole of education to a uniform system, mapped out with Germanic precision. Others have warned the Department not to delude itself with the fond idea that it is its system of education which has won the successes of the present war. On the other hand, its defenders point to results achieved in every grade, lower, middle, and higher. As an effect of the primary teaching, "not only are all young people able to read, but most of them have a knowledge of arithmetic, history, geography, and elementary science which was not possessed by our greatest scholars 30 years ago." The middle and normal schools have been much improved in the last ten years; the progress of female education has been truly astonishing; and ethical knowledge has been diffused far and wide. Lastly, in law and politics, in medicine, and in engineering, if in no other subjects, the work done by graduates of the Imperial University has been of incalculable value to the country.*

B.—The Local Authorities.

The inspection of schools.

79. The general nature of the local organization has been referred to in the preceding chapter; subject to the local Governor, educational affairs are controlled by a chief inspector who acts as a Director of Public Instruction on a small scale. The present arrangements are of recent introduction. Prior to 1897 the 47 local offices employed about 270 persons, whose duties were so numerous as hardly to leave them time to inspect; in 1896 they spent 5,070 days on tour between them, an average of 108 for each prefecture. In 1897 "local school inspectors" were appointed for the first time, three apiece for 6 of the local offices, and two each for the remainder; and an item for "local

* From a summary in the *Japan Mail*.

school inspection" appears in the accounts of the Department. In the following year there were 95 of these inspectors at work, spending an average of 132 days on tour; tours by other local officials being added, each prefecture had an average of 372 days of inspection. In 1899 the system was again revised, a chief inspector and two inspectors being established for each prefecture, along with four or five clerks; each inspector on an average spent 124 days on tour, whilst each prefecture received 383 days, and the average travelling expenditure was nearly four shillings a day. In 1902 the item of "local school inspection" was transferred from the Department of Education to the Home Department; it was stated to represent the salaries of the chief inspectors (the others being paid from local funds), but that cannot be all, as the sum amounts to over £17,000, giving an average of £360 for each inspector, or more than double of what any of them receive.

80. The chief inspector, though now paid by the Home Department, is appointed by the Minister for Education. ^{Chief inspectors.} Persons eligible for the appointment are:—(a) those who have served as departmental inspectors; (b) those who have served as directors, or instructors of the second official rank, in Government schools for two years; (c) those who have directed normal, or public secondary or technical, schools for three years; (d) those who have served as prefectural or district inspectors for five years; (e) those who have been engaged in educational work for at least 5 years, and are receiving a salary not lower than the third grade in the third official class. Such are the regulations; but at least one chief inspector had had no previous educational experience at all, having been transferred to the post from another Department in Tokyo. Of other cases enquired into, three had been directors of normal schools, and one came from the staff of a higher school. Their pay ranges from £80 to £160 a year. The chief inspector is chairman of a prefectural board for licensing primary school teachers within that prefecture; the average number of applicants being 1,300 each year.

Ordinary
prefectural
inspectors.

81. For an ordinary inspectorship the following are eligible:—(a) those who have served as directors or teachers in normal, or public secondary or technical, schools for three years; (b) those who have a higher primary school licence, and have directed one for 3 years; (c) those who have been engaged in educational work, with the third official rank, for 5 years. Thus primary, secondary, and normal teachers are all eligible, and there is the usual difference of opinion as to which of them makes the best inspector. But most primary school teachers seem to prefer a man who has graduated from a normal school, and then taught in a primary school for from 5 to 10 years. Some are promoted to this post from that of district inspector, still to be mentioned. The prefectural inspectors are appointed by the local Governor, and draw from £4 to £5 a month; all contribute 1 per cent. of their pay towards pension, their previous service as teachers counting in their favour, whether they were then liable to contribute or not. *

The division
of work.

82. The division of work amongst the inspectors varies in different prefectures. Some chief inspectors seem disposed to stand on their dignity as the chief educational authority of the prefecture, and remain at head-quarters, unless specially sent out by the Governor; they plead that they have so much office work that they cannot find time to tour. Others supervise the prefectural schools, *i. e.*, the normal and secondary schools, general or technical, leaving all the primary ones to their subordinates; this does not give them very much work, as the prefectural schools are few in number. Others, again, share the work equally with the other inspectors; they tour, and inspect all the schools they come across. Inspectors travel at all seasons, even in the winter, when the north is buried under snow; indeed, the schools are sometimes fullest then, there being no farm-work to distract the boys. Much travelling is done on horseback, or by jinrikisha. They do not give notice of their coming, unless for special reasons, but of course it is often likely to be known in advance. In two prefectures visited all three inspectors were on tour simultaneously; but

more commonly at least one remains at head-quarters. By those who travel from 7 to 14 days are spent on tour in each month. In an emergency one of the clerks (who have usually been primary teachers) may be sent to inspect; occasionally, also, the director of a normal school is ordered to report on some other school. During the heat of July and August the prefectural offices work only half-time; and an inspector may be able to get a few days' leave when work is slack, or if he is sick, but there is no regular system of leave.

83. Besides the prefectural inspectors there is one for each ^{District} rural district, a system introduced at some date prior to 1897. ^{inspectors.} There was at first some opposition to their appointment on the part of district assemblies, which preferred to economize by leaving the work of inspection to ordinary officials of the district office; but the Government steadily pressed the point, until now every district is provided with one. They are appointed by the local Governor, the qualifications being similar to those for the ordinary prefectural inspectorship; all probably have been primary teachers, and some are promoted to the prefectural office. There are three grades of pay, ranging from £3 to £4 a month. The district inspector usually has one clerk, sometimes two; and spends about half of each month on tour. He is under the orders of the headman of the district, and is also subordinate to the prefectural inspectors, who supervise his work and records.

84. There are thus four grades of inspectors in Japan; the departmental inspectors, with their headquarters at Tokyo; the ^{Average} chief inspectors of prefectures; the ^{district of} ordinary inspectors of the same; and lastly the district (or city) inspectors. The first two classes are appointed by the Department, the others by the local Governors; the respective numbers being 5, 47, 94, and 638, or 784 in all. The system is based on territorial divisions, not on the number of schools to be supervised; but the following is a rough estimate of the sphere of influence of various inspectors (Hokkaido being omitted except in the first case):—

		Sq. miles.	Population.	Schools.	Scholars.
1 departmental	...	29,400	9,000,000	6,000	1,090,000
3 prefectural	...	2,420	970,000	640	116,000
1 district	...	192	81,000	53	9,700

Enquiries showed an average of from 30 to 70 primary schools in a district, in different parts of the country. It seems, therefore, that a district inspector can exercise fairly close supervision over his schools, if he spends half his time on tour. There are no inspectresses in Japan, nor likely to be at present.

Functions of
inspectors.

85. The primary function of all these inspectors is to inspect, and report to the local authorities; but in so far as they have to transact administrative business in the educational offices, there may be cases in which local inspectors are authorized to give instructions or orders. On returning from a tour they submit a report; and the local office retains a full record of all the teachers in the prefecture, their knowledge of each subject, manner of teaching, casual absences, and so on, classified by the schools in which they are employed. The inspector commonly devotes a day to each school, examining the registers, the ventilation and sanitary condition, etc., and inspecting the teaching. Some ask the children a question or two, but examining is no part of their functions; nor do they check the promotions and graduations, all such matters being left to the teachers themselves. Private schools are equally liable to inspection, the inspectors being spoken of as strict, but friendly. As to the frequency of inspection, some schools are seen by the departmental inspector once in two years, but a great many not at all; the prefectural inspector pays a visit once a year, if he can; the district inspector frequently turns up every month, or every two months. A village possessed of hot springs is likely to receive more of the inspectors' attention than one less favoured by nature. Some have been indefatigable in working up the attendance of children at the primary schools, personally visiting every backward house, and urging parents to send their boys and

girls. Occasionally a conference of inspectors is held. Of the problem of technical inspection no very satisfactory solution has been reached; all the ordinary inspectors being without technical knowledge, even though they may be so far interested in such matters as to spend their leisure in making a table at the local industrial school. "One man cannot know everything," said one of them; a proposition which does not seem to dispose of the question whether, with such a quantity of technical work and corresponding expenditure, some regular supervision by qualified men is not desirable. A technical professor, however, is occasionally deputed on tour. European inspectors in India, I believe, sometimes obtain the opinion of their wives on such matters as drawing and needlework; but Japanese inspectors pay little attention to these subjects.

C.—*Cost.*

86. The total cost of direction and inspection in Japan is difficult to estimate, the data available being few. The regular expenses of the Department proper for 1902 were £46,200. For local educational offices no details are published. In one prefecture the salaries of the inspectors and their subordinates came to £408, with travelling expenses of £66; in another case the salaries were £480, the travelling allowances £100; other expenses were not separable from those of the prefecture in general. Averaging these results, and multiplying by 47, we get £24,800 for all the prefectures. Eleven districts, again, in one prefecture cost £420 for inspectors' salaries, and £120 for travelling expenses; if there was one clerk to each on 25 yen a month, that would make £330 more, or £870 in all. The total of 638 districts, therefore, would have an expenditure of about £51,000. We have then—

Department	£46,200
Prefectures	£24,800
Districts	£51,000
Total	£122,000

But it must be confessed that the calculation is little better than a guess. British India spends on direction and inspection £170,000, employing 1,675 inspectors of all grades to the 784 of Japan; each has an average area of 641 square miles, an average population of 143,000, and an average number of 2,320 scholars to look after.

Chapter IV.—PRIMARY EDUCATION.

Institutions
for primary
education.

87. Under the head of primary education may be placed kindergartens, elementary schools, technical schools of an elementary character, and schools for defectives. The last two classes are treated of separately. The kindergartens and elementary schools admit both boys and girls, and the percentages of the sexes attending them are now so nearly equal that there is no reason for separating their treatment.

I.—Kindergartens.

History.

88. A kindergarten is defined as an institution for training infants under school age, or between three and six. The first in Japan was that organised by the Department, with American help, in 1876, in connection with the Tokyo female normal school, for which it now forms a practising school. Soon after the establishment of this one others were instituted in various places, and it was found necessary to issue instructions that infants under school age were to be trained according to this system, and not to be forced prematurely into anything like the regular school course. It was also provided that the "five relations" of Confucius were to be the basis of instruction, perhaps in response to those critics who have urged that the Japanese kindergartens ignore the first principle of Froebel's system, religion. In the Government kindergarten a separate room is provided for the poorer children, with a simpler system of training. Besides this one there are 183 public ones, and 79 private; the total number of teachers is 726, and that of children 24,184, boys being 12,744 and girls 11,440. In the last ten years the number of children has doubled, but ever so barely six in a thousand of those joining primary schools come from a kindergarten.

89. The regulations provide that there should not be more Size. than 100 children in a kindergarten, nor more than 40 under one teacher. The Government kindergarten has 167 children, with 28 to each teacher; the public ones have on the average 105, with 36 to each teacher; and the private ones average 60, with 25 to each teacher. An American lady informed me that she had found 100 children too many; they did not get to know each other or the teachers, and remained very shy. She had now reduced her numbers to 45, with three teachers trained by herself, and found the results much more satisfactory. In a private kindergarten, again, at Kobe, considered the best in Japan, there are from 13 to 16 children in each class. It would seem, then, that the classes in the public institutions are much too large for the best results, it being quite an error to suppose that, because the children are small, more of them can be dealt with by one teacher.

90. For a kindergarten a single-storied building is recom- Buildings and Equipment. mended, on a healthy site, away from noise or possible danger to the children. Not less than 36 square feet are supposed to be allowed for every five children in the rooms, and for each child in the playground. There is commonly one large room, with a circle marked on the floor to guide their musical evolutions; in the smaller rooms they sit round tables, the tops of which are ruled in squares. The rooms are airy and well-lighted. To the children a brass or wooden label is often attached, bearing their name and address, in case of accidents; a few are attended by nurses.

91. The teachers are women, who hold special licences as Teachers. such from the local Governor, or who have qualified as elementary teachers; in addition there is a director or secretary to attend to business. In public establishments the members of the staff are nominally appointed or dismissed by the local Governor; in private ones the Governor must be notified. In status and pay kindergarten teachers hold an inferior position to the teachers of primary schools. In the public kindergartens salaries for

teachers amounted to £6,100 in a year, giving an average of between £11 and £12 apiece.

The kinder-
garten
course.

92. The regulations lay down that excessive stress is not to be laid on lessons, whilst constant care is to be taken to inculcate good manners. The course of training includes singing, conversation, manipulation of the kindergarten "gifts," and games, which are partly free, partly consist of combined movements in time to music. The hours may not exceed five daily, including the midday meal hour. Some of those visited met for three hours only; in the kindergarten at Kobe already mentioned the youngest children attend from 9 to 12, the rest until 2 o'clock; Saturdays and Sundays are holidays. At the time of my visit the children were seated in a large circle, boys and girls alternately, singing a harvest thanksgiving to a hymn-tune; then came a variety of other songs (mostly translated into Japanese from those used in America), accompanied by simple actions, such as the waving of a flag, the motions of a woodpecker, etc. A story followed about chrysanthemums (the time being November), to which the principal, a Japanese lady, added a few remarks. The children then stood up, went through a musical march, and dispersed to their rooms, of which there were two, each containing two small classes. All were clean and respectable in appearance, except that even here one or two had the sore faces so common in Japan; their attention was drawn to the necessity of blowing their noses from time to time. In the small rooms one class attached coloured squares and discs to ruled paper, another rolled a ball on the table and sang about its movements; the third and fourth classes were occupied with wooden bricks. All the kindergarten materials are now made in Japan itself. Two sides of each room were occupied by black-boards, displaying admirable sketches by a teacher of Japanese scenes, rice-planting, rice-harvest, Japanese soldiers on the march, a crow in a pine tree, etc. The children themselves draw a little, sometimes at pleasure, sometimes after models; in the Government kindergarten the favourite "free" subjects seemed to be Japanese warships, and electric

trams (recently introduced into that district). In the best institutions the training is evidently similar to that of Europe and America, the main object being to develop the initiative of the child, whilst imperceptibly guiding it in the desired direction. This, however, throws a considerable strain upon the teacher, and in most of the public institutions the classes are too large. The teachers too are often insufficiently trained, and tend to follow the routine of kindergarten methods without fully understanding the principles. The work is perhaps especially difficult for Japanese, because they are unfamiliar with the idea of discipline for small children. Some of them seem almost morbidly nervous about overpressure, and make the children go out to play after about 20 minutes in class. Indeed, in the public kindergartens visited the children did little but rush about and make a deafening noise, the secretary of one of them remarking that they did not do much there except "fun." In official quarters the main value of kindergartens is considered to lie in their accustoming the children to the idea of going to school, so that there is less trouble about the period of obligatory attendance when this arrives.

93. The total cost of the public kindergartens for one year ^{Finance.} was £12,060, of which £6,330 were met out of income, chiefly fees. The average cost of a kindergarten was therefore £57, or of each child about 12 6 shillings. The average annual fee was 6 4 shillings. The Government kindergarten admits poor children free, but charges the rest 2 shillings a month. A public one visited, with 65 children and 3 teachers, costs £80 a year; fees account for £50, the rest being provided by the local educational association, whilst the building is furnished by the prefecture. It will be seen that the substantial fee charged in most of these institutions must limit their pupils to those who are fairly well off.

II.—Elementary Schools.

94. Elementary schools are officially declared to be "de- Definition.
signed to give children the rudiments of moral education, and

of education specially adapted to make of them good members of the community, together with such general knowledge and skill as are necessary for practical life, due attention being paid to their bodily development." These objects are explained more fully in the regulations, which emphasize five points, (1), the importance of moral and civic training; (2) attention to practical requirements; (3) regard to physical as well as mental growth; (4) discrimination of the sexes; (5) the interconnection of different subjects.

History.

95. The character of the indigenous primary schools has been described in the first chapter, there were schools for the *samurai* children, maintained by the feudal lords; and for common people others, called *terakoya*, originally associated with Buddhist temples. The latter were attended by a fair number of girls, and the general effect upon the population was such that practically all the *samurai*, and about a third of the remaining male population, could read and write a little. Soon after the Restoration a few primary schools of a more Western type were established, the best being in Tokyo, and their rules were circulated as models by the Educational Department on its formation in 1871. By the Code of 1872 the country was divided into 53,760 primary school districts, reduced to 14,000 in 1892, or one for every 555 houses; at present there are about 25,500 ordinary primary schools. At first the best of the former teachers and establishments were utilised; but, as indicated in chapter I, the arrangements were frequently remodelled. The compulsory aspect of education, however, was never strictly enforced, the authorities preferring not to excite popular prejudice against the schools on the part of those accustomed to count on the labour of their children from an early age. Persuasion and time have been relied on rather than coercion. Boys, of course, were from the first sent more readily than girls, but in the last few years the percentage of female attendance has increased so rapidly that now there is a difference of less than 9 per cent., between the sexes. The following table will give an idea of this development:—

*umber of children receiving the prescribed course
of instruction per cent. of school population.*

	Boys.	Girls.	Total.
1873	... 40	15	28
1877	... 55	22	40
1882	... 64	31	49
1887	... 61	28	45
1892	... 72	37	56
1897	.. 81	52	67
1902	... 96	87	91

The general expansion which followed the war with China showed itself here also; money was spent more freely on primary education, with corresponding results. But the poverty of Japan compelled her, whilst making education compulsory, to exact fees for it as well; and it was not until 1900 that orders were given to make the ordinary course as far as possible free. This course was then fixed at four years, and simplified; at present its extension to six years is under serious consideration, the chief difficulty being that of finding the necessary money. Even as it is, the number of children seeking admission each year is double that of those who leave, rendering the problem of sufficient accommodation a pressing one.

96. Primary schools are divided into two grades, called Grades and ordinary and higher; there are 25,515 of the former, and continuation classes 8,283 of the latter; in 6,644 cases the two are combined. If each of these last is reckoned one school only, there are 27,154 primary schools, with 109,000 teachers, and over 5,100,000 children. In addition, supplementary courses, lasting not more than two years, are established in 2,136 of the ordinary and 224 of the higher schools, for the benefit of those unable to continue the regular course. These classes are most numerous in remote parts where the population is scattered, and the distance makes it inconvenient for the children to come to school for the full number of hours; or in villages with limited resources, unable to support a higher primary school. In other cases, where it is employment which

prevents boys from continuing their school course, the supplementary class often takes the form of a night-school.

Half-time
schools.

97. Where the school house or the teaching staff are inadequate, or in cases of special necessity, the local authorities may sanction the division of the whole or part of the children into two sections, each of which is taught for half the day only. This shift was adopted, in 1902, in 141 cases; but in the present year the circumstances created by the war have forced it upon a good many more, including normal practising-schools which should be models. It will be noticed that these half-time schools have nothing in common with those of India, where the experiment has been tried as a means of reaching children who are employed for part of the day. In Japan those who employ children before the completion of the ordinary course are warned (not always with much effect) not to interfere with their school attendance. In agricultural districts, indeed, during the busiest time certain half-time concessions may be made, but this is for a few days only.

Establishment
and main-
tenance.

98. More than 98 per cent. of primary schools are maintained by cities, towns, or villages. Two only are maintained by the Department, and 52 by prefectures, all in connection with normal schools. Little more than one per cent. are managed by private individuals, the number being limited by the rule which forbids a private primary school to receive children of school age, except under special circumstances. Tokyo alone contains 228 of these private schools, out of 325. The establishment of higher primary schools is not obligatory, but since 1890 every city, town, and village has been bound to maintain ordinary schools sufficient to accommodate its children of school age. When necessary, different villages may form a school union; or under special circumstances the authorities may allow a private school to be used as a substitute. The number of these substitutes has risen from 5 in 1892 to 68 in 1902; but 45 of them are in Tokyo. This connects itself with the backwardness of primary education in the capital, as well as in others of the

most important centres, such as Osaka and Yokohama. One reason for this is to be found in the greater demand for children's labour, as to which pressure is now put on the employers, and special arrangements are attempted, such as factory schools and night schools. But as the children here concerned are the youngest, those from six to ten, the demand for their labour can hardly be so great as to constitute the only explanation. In Tokyo, at any rate, the blame is partly laid on the local authorities, who are said to have been remiss in providing schools, and to have trusted too much to private enterprise. Further, in great cities the local authorities have less knowledge of the people, and less influence over them; and in Japan the enforcement of school attendance is an affair of persuasive influence, not of compulsion by legal process.

99. Parents and guardians are bound to see that their children pass through the ordinary primary course, covering four years. They may, indeed, have them taught at home or elsewhere, with the consent of the local mayor; but in such a case the mayor has the right to have the children examined, and to withdraw his consent if he considers their education inadequate. In practice all classes, except some of the nobility who avail themselves of two special schools at Tokyo, send their children to the common schools; the children all meet there, even if they do not all mix, and so all classes are interested in maintaining the efficiency of the schools. The school age is the period of eight years from six to fourteen, whilst the period of obligatory attendance is reckoned from the beginning of the school year (April 1st) which follows the attainment of school age. All the children of school age constitute the school-population, and the school census is taken every December by distributing a card to each house, requiring particulars of the children. This method has been followed for some seven years, and is considered to give fairly accurate results; but an unexplained fall of over 100,000 in the school population between 1901 and 1902 shows that it cannot be completely trusted. In the latter year the total

number of children of school age was 7,366,000, of whom 6,500,000 had entered the period of obligatory attendance; of these rather more than 500,000 were temporarily or permanently exempted, and rather less than 6,000,000 (or over 91 per cent.) were receiving, or had completed, the prescribed course. If referred to cities, towns and villages, the percentages appear as follows:—

		Boys,	Girls,	Total.
Cities	...	93	89	91
Towns	...	96	89	92
Villages	...	96	86	91

Girls are more needed in the country to look after the house and the baby, whilst the adults are in the fields; and the use of sending them to school is not so readily appreciated. Lastly, if we compare the children in the ordinary primary schools, with the entire population, they form about 9 per cent. of it; or taking all primary schools, about 11 per cent. The following figures corresponding to this last percentage are given for certain other countries by Mr. Lewis,* but are based on statistics taken some years ago:—United States, 20 per cent.; Great Britain, 15; France, 14·5; British India, 1·6.

Machinery
for securing
attendance.

100. It is the duty of the local mayor each year to prepare from the register of births a list of the children about to attain the period of school attendance. In the case of a family having changed its residence, the police are in the ordinary course furnished with full details about it, and they transmit to the educational authorities such information as concerns them. The mayor can grant temporary or permanent exemption on the score of disability, physical or mental; or in cases of extreme poverty attendance may be postponed for a time, as also where the distance to the nearest school is considered too great for a child of six. To meet this last difficulty, some small villages, especially in the mountains, have a branch school for the first year, or first two years, of

* *Educational Conquest of the Far East.*

the course, after which the children have to make their way to the main school for the rest. In 1902 about 8 per cent. of those under obligation were exempted, and nearly four-fifths of these were girls. Only 88,000 children were permanently exempted, but 62,000 of these were girls, showing that parents are still less willing to send girls than boys if it can be avoided. When the mayor's list is made out, parents are notified of the nearest school, and the school is warned of the children to be expected. If they do not turn up within a week, the school-master should report the fact to the mayor, who will take the necessary steps. No one, however, is ever prosecuted or fined on this ground; persuasion alone is relied on. In his educational duties the mayor is usually assisted by a committee, consisting of not more than ten members, some of whom must be male teachers in public primary schools. These committees number about 55,000 members (or about four on the average for each town and village), 18,000 of them being such teachers.

101. The enormous increase in the attendance of girls in the last few years is especially noteworthy. Ten years ago the proportion of boys to girls was as 2 to 1; now it is as 9 to 8. Such results, says the official record, may be attributed to the proper encouragement of attendance on the part of school committees and other superintending officers, to the necessity of education becoming better appreciated, and to the faithful discharge of their duties by those having the care of children. In one prefecture the high percentage of attendance was attributed largely to the persevering efforts of a recent inspector, who personally urged its necessity upon the people of every backward house. In other cases educational associations have been active in beating up the children, especially the girls. In the days when fees were more generally levied, the attendance of the very poor was improved by remitting their fees; whilst associations, priests, and other benevolent persons often assist by providing books, paper, pencils, or even clothes and food. The spread of sericulture has so enriched many districts that the children are freely

Means of
improving
attendance.

sent to school, in spite of mountains and other physical difficulties. Sometimes the comparative excellence or backwardness of a district is traced back to feudal conditions; here, there were big Daimyos, or enlightened Daimyos, who encouraged popular education as well as that of the privileged class, and so the people were accustomed to the idea of education from the beginning; elsewhere there were only petty Daimyos, with no schools, and so it has been an uphill struggle. Special arrangements are at times made for girls; they are allowed to attend for shorter hours, or for a less number of years, or to bring the baby to school, the chief function of a Japanese girl being to carry the baby on her back. Sometimes a special room is provided for the little nurses, sometimes they must sit with the other children; if the infant is fretful it is taken out and soothed. Even boys may be seen in school with babies on their backs. These devices, however, are not permitted in large towns. Lastly, many districts showed a rapid improvement as soon as the authorities were persuaded to spend more money; more schools were provided, more fees could be remitted, more poor children were assisted with necessaries.

Progress due
to work, not
miracle.

102. In explanation of the advances made by the Japanese we are constantly referred to their wonderful docility, and loyal obedience to the commands of their Emperor. Docility, however, will not explain everything, at any rate in the educational field. A glance at the figures already given will show how gradual was the progress for many years; and even now there are prefectures where only 75 per cent. of the girls are attending school. In other words, for many years a full half or more of the people ignored the declared wish, or later the positive command, of the Emperor that they should send their children to school; and even now in some parts a quarter of the parents disobey the same command so far as their girls are concerned. Again, in such a place as Osaka many children who ought to be at school are to be found in the factories. It seems, then, first, that though much has been

achieved, a good deal still remains to be done ; and, secondly, that remarkable as the development of primary education has been, there is nothing supernatural or miraculous about it ; the present success has been won by steady, hard work over a period of thirty years, on the part of a large number of people, of governors and mayors, inspectors and teachers, associations and individuals. By their united efforts they have brought it about that the majority of parents, if not actually believers in schooling, at any rate are prepared to tolerate the inevitable ; while the children are commonly so keen that they insist on attending, even when parents are disposed to set them to work.

103. In connection with any system of obligatory attendance the provision of an adequate number of schools is naturally an important point. With 25,500 ordinary primary schools, and a population of 46 millions, we have one school for every 1,800 of population, or every 288 children of school age (6 to 14). It is laid down that a school should be capable of being reached in 30 minutes by children of the first year class ; but where the population is scattered this cannot always be carried out. For the whole of Japan one school to about six square miles would appear to be the average, but under ordinary circumstances the greatest distance to be traversed is not more than from $1\frac{1}{2}$ to $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles. There are, however, places where children come 4 miles or so, and turn up before 7-30 in the morning ; and others where the children of wood-cutters or charcoal-burners away in the mountains have to walk even greater distances, with the result that they are generally late, and have to take an extra year over the course. In the north, where the people are more scattered, schools are opened in very small places for a few children only ; and in Hokkaido, the circumstances of which are exceptional, they have a school for three children only, and another for five. The distances between higher primary schools are naturally greater, there being only one of these to every 5,500 of population ; the average area served may here be from 11 to 14 square miles,

Adequacy of
schools.

or even more, and children may have to walk six or eight miles to school daily, or else find lodgings in the neighbourhood, which is hardly possible for girls. But a Japanese child, with uncramped feet protected by straw sandals or wooden clogs, is an excellent walker, and these distances are covered in all weathers. Every large village is sure to have a higher school of its own, very likely about its middle, with an ordinary school near each end, Japanese villages being often immensely long in proportion to their width. If the supply of schools is estimated with reference to the number of places to be supplied, we find in different prefectures relations like this: 209 towns and villages with 360 ordinary schools, 180 with 450, 334 with 500, and so on. For the whole of Japan, on the average, every town or village has two schools.

Size of a
school.

104. Supplementary courses being neglected, an ordinary primary school has on the average 3 teachers and 160 pupils; a higher school has 3 teachers and 120 pupils. 'Apart from the specially small schools mentioned above, the minimum strength varies in different prefectures from 20 to 50; but owing to the diffusion of education a really small school is rather difficult to find, unless one searches the mountains or some of the small islands. The smallest encountered by myself was one of 28, with 9 supplementary pupils, mostly girls; the next smallest were of 70 and 90. On the other hand, some of these primary schools are very large; several of those visited reckoned over 1,000 pupils, whilst the largest had 2,300 children in the ordinary course, and 1,270 in the higher, with 49 teachers.

Supervision.

105. Primary schools are supervised through the inspectors, of whom each prefecture employs three, and each rural district one. Enquiries at various schools showed that the district inspector visited them once in two months, or oftener; the prefectural inspector perhaps once in a year; the departmental inspector from Tokyo perhaps once in two years, more probably not at all. The inspector examines the buildings and registers, and goes round the classes, to watch the teaching, and not to examine the children; he is responsible

for seeing that only the recognised teachers are employed, and only the authorised course of instruction followed.

106.● If the Japanese seem to have plenty of money to spend Buildings. on education, the explanation lies partly in the economy they practise in the matter of salaries and of buildings. No money is wasted on architectural splendour, least of all in the case of primary schools. These unpretending wooden structures, sometimes with glazed windows, sometimes with paper-covered slides, often look neat enough when new; but when the wood grows weather-beaten, and the paper-windows tattered, the school is apt to appear rather dingy and forlorn. Nor does the compound relieve the scene; except for an occasional wistaria arbour, a picture of loveliness when in bloom, and a haven of shade always in summer, the playground is bare and dreary, with a swing and a piece or two of gymnastic apparatus in a corner, and all the rest left open for the drilling and other physical exercises. I do not remember any primary school with a garden. On the other hand, the interior is usually well suited for its objects: there is light, there is air, there are plenty of appliances, there are models, and specimens, and pictures, and maps, not on the walls, it is true, but still available. Of all the schools visited only one could have been called really badly arranged, the rooms being crowded, and the classes separated from each other merely by cotton hangings. Strangely enough, this was in the capital of a prefecture. A feature that strikes one about most of these buildings is their newness. The enormous development of education in a few years has led to constant extensions or rebuilding, until people now apologise for a building ten or fifteen years old, as if it were something pre-historic. Almost every school-house is the property of the school, buildings being never rented for this purpose, unless under unavoidable circumstances. Out of a total expenditure of £3,150,000 on public primary schools in one year, less than £30,000 went for rent for grounds and houses, or considerably less than

1 per cent. of the whole. Sometimes a disestablished Buddhist temple is utilised, and usually affords an airy space sufficient for the purpose. The school-house may not be used for any other purpose, unless in case of some calamity.

Site.

107. The site for a school is required to be an open and well-drained piece of ground, remote from any place offensive to morals, and from such bustle as may distract the teaching, or expose the children to danger. A town school cannot always avoid bustle, but on the whole the sites seem well chosen, and are improved upon if possible, in case of a school being rebuilt. There must be an open court for exercise, and also, if possible, a covered room large enough for the same purpose in bad weather; in the north, where the winter is very severe, this is especially necessary. The writer saw a drawing by a teacher depicting the boys of a primary school cutting a path through the snow, which lay six feet deep in their compound. Even small village-schools are often so arranged that the upper floor is used for classes, whilst the lower one forms a large drilling hall. For the open compound at least 3,600 square feet should be allowed for an ordinary school, up to 100 children, and above that number at least 36 extra for each child; these figures being increased by half for a higher school. In a city the number and sites of schools are fixed by the local Governor, in consultation with the city authorities; in towns and villages the decision falls to the headman of the district, in consultation with the town or village council, and subject to the approval of the Governor.

Plan of the
buildings.

108. For the building, there are rules as to the size in proportion to the numbers, the amount of windows, etc., but no standard plans are maintained. In a village the district inspector helps with the plans and estimates, which are then submitted to the prefecture for approval; but the newspapers announced recently that the Department had appointed a committee to whom all designs for town and village schools were in future to be submitted. The work is commonly carried out by the village carpenter. Allegations of jobbery and corruption have occa-

sionally been published, primary schools having fallen, or been blown, down in a manner that appeared suspicious. A large school is commonly two-storied, but the buildings are of all shapes, some surrounding parts of a quadrangle, others being arranged in parallel rows connected by covered ways. The outside may be painted a dull grey, or left alone, to weather to a similar colour; there are the heavy tiles of Japan, where a building is held in position by the roof and not the foundation; the inside is probably left unpainted. The rules require 3 square feet of floor-space for each child, the ceiling being not less than 9 feet from the floor, and the window area not less than one-sixth of the floor area. Some primary schools imitate those of a higher grade in having a large hall, where all the children can be assembled for moral exhortations, or to salute the Emperor's picture on the prescribed occasions. There is also a room for the teachers. In a village school the teacher is sometimes provided with quarters in part of the building; if not, some one is told off to sleep in it at night.

109. At the entrance to the school there are shelves and Equipment. racks for receiving the clogs and umbrellas of the children, only clean straw sandals being permitted inside. Primary schools are not usually provided with any warming apparatus, the Japanese trusting to warmer clothes in winter, rather than to stoves and fires; but it is not every child that possesses warmer clothes. Class-rooms are invariably equipped with single or double desks or tables. A black-board on an easel is sometimes seen: more commonly it is fixed to the wall, and stretches the whole width of the room. The best schools have a plentiful supply of coloured as well as white chalk, and a teacher may be seen drawing admirable plans, or sketches of plants and flowers, in various colours. The reading lessons, and those on morals, are illustrated by a supply of diagrams and pictures, which include portraits of Japanese heroes, illustrations of former costumes and manners, etc., as well as naval and military diagrams of an up-to-date character. Often also there is a small museum for the same purpose, with stuffed birds and

animals, or models of them, botanical models, insects, minerals, and other common objects. Several schools possess fine models of warships, purchased from Tokyo, or presented by past scholars; some display with pride diplomas from the Paris Exhibition, where their exhibits won a silver medal. A higher primary school will also possess physiological charts or models, and some simple physical and chemical apparatus. A library of any sort, even for the teachers, is rare; but one school visited had a number of books and quite a large collection of Japanese periodicals, bought by the subscriptions of the teachers. I nowhere observed that the teachers had brought anything with them from the normal school, or that they produced anything in the latter which would be of use to them subsequently, such as the orreries and other specimens of manual work which many Indian teachers take away with them. A higher school in a remote town boasted of a camera, used to photograph flowers for the drawing lessons, and of a magic lantern, with which the events of the China War and other scenes of interest had been occasionally shown; but few schools attempt anything in this direction, and the educational use of the lantern is almost entirely neglected. Wooden dumb-bells are provided everywhere for the physical exercises, and light rifles, or imitations of them, for the senior boys. Some schools teach a little agriculture, but few of them seem to possess any ground for the purpose, and such as they have is seldom in evidence.

Cost of
buildings.

110. Of the cost of buildings it is not possible to give any general estimate, as no standard plans are maintained; but a few specific cases may be quoted. The buildings of an ordinary and higher school at Yokohama, with 2,100 children, cost £6,000; those of another, with 1,250 children, cost £3,000. In the second case the cost was met by a special tax levied on the six neighbouring streets, a method which I do not remember to have seen mentioned in a recent discussion connected with the improvement of primary schools in Bombay. In a fishing village the ordinary and higher school, which had 240 pupils,

was built at a cost of £100; the furniture had been acquired by degrees. The cost, in fact, of equipping a new school could never be ascertained; the furniture had always been taken over from an older building, or else gradually added to, and the original value seemed to be unknown. An ordinary and higher school in a small town, with 500 pupils in 11 classes, possessed 3,090 square yards of ground, and three small blocks of buildings; the land cost £472, the buildings £345. Lastly, a perfectly new ordinary school stood in a sort of clearing in the jungle, at some distance from its village so as to serve another as well; the ground, which measured 5,000 square yards, had been obtained from Government at the nominal price of £10. The main building held four ordinary class-rooms, a sewing-room, and a teachers' room, all in one long block; a smaller block behind supplied a room for a supplementary class, and quarters for the head-teacher. The whole was adapted for 300 children, with 5 teachers. The building occupied 600 square yards, and cost £260; the furniture was old; the annual cost of the school came to £85.

111. Primary schools are always day-schools, except in the case of a few private institutions; I did hear of a public higher primary school which once had a boarding-house, but the expense was found to be too heavy. Many children live too far from a higher school to be able to walk there every day, and must either find lodgings in its neighbourhood, or bring their schooling to a close; a newly opened higher school had boys of 17 and 18 in it, who had hitherto been unable to satisfy their desire for more education. Teachers, however, sometimes board some of those who come from a distance.

112. The primary school year runs from April 1st; and the number of holidays, exclusive of Sundays, must not exceed 90 days, leaving 223 available for work. The chief vacation is taken about August, the hottest time of the year, and may last four or five weeks; short spells are also allowed about the New Year, and at the beginning of April. Sometimes special holidays are granted at the seasons when rice-farmers or silk-growers are

most busy, the days so allowed being deducted from the regular vacations; or summer work makes up for winter ease in high-lying spots. From time to time a school takes a holiday to march out and play in the fields, or to admire the cherry-blossom and the lotus in their season. Even longer excursions are attempted; sixty boys from a higher primary school were encountered 50 miles from home, the distance having been covered on foot in five days.

School hours. 113. In summer schools generally work from 7 to 11 or 12; at other seasons from 8 to 2, or from 9 to 3; the youngest classes being dismissed after three hours only. The children return home for the midday meal, if possible; otherwise, they bring their lunch with them in neat cylindrical boxes, hung in a bag of cloth or network, a room being sometimes provided for them to eat it in. Some schools supply lunch to the very poorest; just now many children are denying themselves one meal a day, that their parents may be able to contribute more to the various war-funds. Besides a recess from 12 to 1, they get 15 or 20 minutes for recreation in every hour, being marched out into the playground and dismissed by the teacher or the captain of the class. When the bell rings again, the teachers marshal their classes and march them back; during the interval the children are encouraged to run about, to play, and shout as they please. Home lessons are seldom set in primary schools, unless it be a little arithmetic for those who are backward; but the seniors of the higher grade are sometimes expected to do a little more, or finding the work difficult they voluntarily con the next lesson beforehand.

Regularity
and punctu-
ality.

114. Those in charge of children are under obligation not only to send them to school, but to send them regularly. The average percentage of daily attendance was only 64 some ten years ago, but has steadily improved until now it stands at over 88. Still, the annual Report has taken of late to complaining that in some districts, while there are more children enrolled than ever, the average of actual attendance has fallen off, so that the improvement in primary education is merely nominal.

Practising schools attached to normal schools secure the best average, over 94 per cent., showing that any prejudice formerly felt against them has vanished; of the rest, private schools (with 90 per cent.) seem to have a firmer hold over their pupils than the public schools (86 per cent. only). Absentees are most numerous in places like Yokohama, where 100 or 150 are missing daily from one school; in country towns we find perhaps 10 absent out of 1,140, or 25 out of 675 in the busiest time at a great silk-centre. In one school of 1,750 last year 400 were never absent. Many schools award monthly or yearly certificates of regularity, which are greatly prized. Of the absentees, some are sick, some may have left the town without informing the school, some are carried off by their parents on outings. Not many seem to play truant wilfully; but if they do, the machinery for dealing with them is not very effective. Where there is sickness or other valid excuse, the parent is expected to inform the school; else, after six or seven days warning is sent to him by a postcard, and if the child continues absent without explanation, the mayor is informed, and left to take such steps as he pleases. Cases of lesser irregularity or unpunctuality are reported to the parents at the end of the month, or even of the year; from which it may be supposed that the authorities consider the parents themselves as most likely to be the cause of the irregularity, and do not care to press them over such matters, any more than they do over the general question of "obligatory" attendance. Regularity is facilitated by the measures for encouraging attendance already quoted; hours are reduced, or the school closed, when the farmers are busiest, or the weather is worst; and children are permitted to bring the baby to school, if they cannot manage to leave it at home, some schools providing beds, and even toys, for such infants. The great distances traversed by some have been mentioned; yet they are generally regular and punctual enough. In winter, when the icy Siberian wind whistles up the snow-blocked valleys, the shivering children from lonely hamlets will wait till the unfailing postman has trampled a path through

the snow ; on rainy days bands of them frequent the country roads in queer rain-coats of straw and enormous hats. But most are at school well before the hour, and when the warning bell rings but few stragglers will be seen quickening their pace through the neighbouring lanes. Part of this apparent punctuality may be due to the general uncertainty as to time. The wayfarer who looks into a country school at 11-5, thinking to catch it nicely before the noon closing-hour, is as likely as not to find it being swept and garnished by a few children ; the rest have disappeared ; a teacher looks reproachfully at a clock which indicates 12-15.

Class manage-
ment.

115. In primary schools the boys can dress as they please, but must wear the regulation cap with a Chinese character in front ; practically all wear Japanese dress, with or without the wide trousers, or divided skirt, called *hakama*. The nature of the dress precludes those exhibitions of nudity which so frequently grace the lower benches of an Indian school. Girls often wear a skirt outside the ordinary *kimono*. On a great occasion, such as the Emperor's birthday, when all gather to venerate his portrait, boys and girls alike wear their best clothes, with their family crest displayed on back and sleeves. The children generally look tolerably neat and clean, but there are sure to be some of those sickening sores on heads or faces which detract so much from the pleasure of travelling in Japan. The pupils are disposed on the whole to be orderly and respectful towards their teachers ; but the absence of home-discipline, and the easy-going disposition of Japanese teachers themselves together cause the discipline of the youngest classes to appear somewhat lax. As they grow older the pressure of public opinion to a great extent takes the place of any from the teacher, who, moreover, deals with the class through its captains. If a teacher is unavoidably absent, the class may be set to teach itself, the children reading by turns, whilst the best scholars are supposed to correct the rest ; as a matter of fact, I never heard any one offer a correction, and the majority did not appear to be even listening. In class all are seated at desks,

the smaller ones in front. The lesson begins by class and teacher bowing to each other; when he propounds a question a dozen little hands fly into the air, and he selects a child by name to answer, assigning such marks as he pleases for their work, as we might by letters from A to D or E. For arithmetic, a child is constantly called up to work a sum on the black-board; he bows as he comes up, and again at the finish. Thanks to the abundance of black-board space provided, several children may be seen so engaged at once. At the end of school hours a detachment from each class sweeps out the room and the adjoining corridor.

116. It is considered undesirable that the number of child-Size of class.
ren in a class should exceed 70 for the ordinary school, or 60 for the higher. Both figures, no doubt, are much too high for effective teaching, but considerations of economy have to be obeyed. Where the numbers are small, different school years may be combined in one class, or even the whole school; there are over 5,600 ordinary schools which are thus single-classed, and practising schools of this nature are attached to the normal schools. For the whole country an ordinary class has on an average 55 children, a higher class 43, supplementary classes vary from 19 to 23.

117. When the children of different years are grouped in a single class, the usual methods are followed; some will be doing sums, while others are reading, or copying characters; then the teacher will engage the whole class simultaneously with a bit of "Nature study," or other general subject. A school which was visited had all the higher primary children, 60 in number, in one class. They sat in four rows, each row from front to back representing a year; as the black-board ran across the room, each year could have special sums or other questions written up in front of it, or could work on the board without interfering with the rest.

118. There are few of either rewards or punishments in a Discipline.
primary school, though some award small prizes of books, slates, pencils, etc., sometimes to a whole class, sometimes

to 10 or 12 picked children. More often certificates of good conduct or regular attendance are awarded. Scholarships do not exist. Few punishments are inflicted beyond a verbal admonition, or a complaint to the parent; but occasionally a child is detained for an hour or so, not to revise a neglected lesson, still less to write out an imposition, but simply for an opportunity of reflection and repentance. Corporal punishment is prohibited. It is, however, permissible to haul a boy roughly out of the ranks by one ear, and make him stand apart in disgrace; but perhaps a drill-instructor is a privileged person. The offence, as far as could be seen, was that of blowing his nose while the squad was numbering. At the end of the term the teacher assigns a class to the child's work in each subject, and these results are communicated to the parent, as well as recorded at the school. The parent affixes his seal to the paper, makes a remark if he thinks fit, and returns it, each form having room for three terminal reports, which include particulars as to attendance, etc. Private tuition is sometimes given to the best pupils, but otherwise the school and the home have not much to do with each other. One school, however, of those visited was proud of its monthly meetings between teachers and the eldest pupils, when they talk about anything new that they have seen, or heard, or read. In primary schools as elsewhere, each child has two sureties.

Special
schools for
poor children.

119. One of the most interesting primary schools visited was a special school for very poor children in Tokyo. This was opened last year, the building having cost £250. It was of the plainest possible type, but neat and clean, with a desk and seat for each child. The pupils numbered 284, and attended in two sections, one from 8 o'clock to 11, the other from 1 to 4; and there were four teachers. It happened to be the recess at the time of my visit; a few children were playing in the compound, the rooms were being aired, in the corridor a teacher was cutting a boy's hair. There was a vision of a small boy having a hot bath in the

background; another was drying himself, *more japonico*, with a wet towel. If rain comes on during school hours, each child is provided with an umbrella and a pair of shoes to get home with. Books, paper, pens, and all are furnished free. Parents are glad enough to utilise the school, which is quite full; the director adjudicates on the question of poverty. The annual cost of this institution is £306, and Tokyo city possesses three more of a similar kind.

120. The primary course has two stages, a lower of 4 years, and a higher of 2, 3, or 4 years, as the case may be; four primary school-children out of five are in the lower stage. Their distribution here is as follows:—31 per cent. are in the first year, 26 in the second, 23 in the third, and 20 in the fourth. The distribution in the higher grade is:—37 in the first year, 28 in the second, 21 in the third, and 14 in the fourth. Since 93 per cent. of them are attending a four years' course, it may be gathered that schools teaching the full course are in the vast majority. It does not follow that all the pupils complete the four years; many pass to a secondary or other school after the second or third year, many quit school altogether. As to the proportion who pass from the lower stage to the higher, this varies very much; in the country probably most stop, in towns probably most go on. In one year the number who completed the ordinary course was 700,000 whilst in the following year the number in the first year class of the higher course was 368,000. Girls especially are often wanted at home after the completion of the obligatory period. Continuation, again, largely depends on the school having both ordinary and higher courses; if the nearest higher course is miles away, many naturally fall off, or content themselves with a "supplementary" class. On the whole, with the multiplication of higher schools, and the growing popularity of education, the tendency is for children to stay at school longer; and if the money is forthcoming, the present obligatory course of four years is likely to be lengthened to six, with a two years' supplement for those who wish it, thus doing away with the present distinction of ordinary and higher schools.

Number and
age of classes.

121. The classes are organised according to school years, promotion being made only once a year. At one time it was possible for a clever boy to secure double promotion, but this has been stopped, and the cleverest cannot complete the course in less than the regulation time. On the other hand, a few of those most backward, whether from want of ability, or from sickness, or other disadvantage, are sometimes made to take a year longer. Some schools, however, never resort to this, considering that the ordinary course is so simple that any one can complete it in four years. If the duller are levelled up in this way, the cleverer must be levelled down; but the necessary learning of Chinese characters acts as a brake upon progress, preventing any child from going ahead very fast. The normal ages for children in primary schools will therefore be from 6 to 10 or 11 in the lower stage, and from 10 to 14 or 15 in the higher.

Promotion
and gradu-
ation.

122. Promotion from class to class is settled by the teachers. Some schools used to examine their pupils at regular intervals, and especially at the conclusion of each stage; but the Department has lately forbidden the holding of set examinations in primary schools, and teachers are instructed to go by their daily marks and general knowledge of the children. The same applies to the transition from the ordinary to the higher grade; there is no examination at the end of either, but if the teacher is satisfied with the child's progress, the latter receives a certificate of "graduation," entitling him to proceed to the next stage. The little graduates generally get themselves photographed along with their teachers, the diplomas being displayed conspicuously somewhere about their persons. It is true that most secondary schools now impose an entrance test, but that is an accident arising out of the circumstance that the number of applicants often exceeds the space available. The standard exacted in the primary school is nominally a high one, even as much as 80 per cent. of the maximum in each subject; but entire classes of a hundred or more boys and girls graduate without a single failure. Either the course must afford few opportunities of separating the better from the worse, or Japanese teachers must be easily satisfied.

123. It was a principle of Confucius that the sexes should not sit in the same room after the age of seven, a principle still observed in the island of Formosa, where the Japanese school authorities are "trying to disillusion the natives of this absurd notion." In Japan itself, when there is a sufficient number of girls of the same year to form a class, the sexes are separated; but this does not necessarily apply to the first and second year classes. It is chiefly in the large town schools that they are separated all through, whereas in villages they may be taught together for the whole period of eight years. Nevertheless, the influence of the "absurd notion" is still visible enough; a certain school, for instance, had four teachers available for the higher course, and it might have seemed natural to assign one to each year; but the actual classes were, (1) first year boys, (2) second year boys, (3) third and fourth year boys, (4) girls of all four years. The girls' classes are largely taught by women, and so are the mixed classes of the first year or two; but the supply of female teachers is scarcely equal to the demand.

Co-education
of boys and
girls.

124. With respect to the subjects taught it will be necessary to deal separately with the two stages. The curriculum for each is uniform for all pupils in that stage, there being no attempt to differentiate between urban and rural schools in the main subjects, though there is some room for option in respect of additional subjects such as agriculture or commerce.

Subjects of
teaching.

125. In ordinary primary schools the subjects of study are morals, the Japanese language, arithmetic, and gymnastics, to which drawing, singing, manual work, and sewing may be added.

Ordinary
primary
curriculum.

Morals.—The moral teaching is based on the Imperial Rescript, easy and appropriate examples for practical imitation being given; the duties of citizens are pointed out, and loyalty and patriotism inculcated from the beginning. A set of three text-books suitable for this course has been issued by the Department, and most schools possess appropriate pictures, such as the bad boy picking cherry blossoms while the good

boy points to the prohibitory notice. The subject is liberally interpreted; there is generally, *e.g.*, a picture showing the bad effect upon the spine of sitting in an incorrect position at the desk. Further details are given in the chapter on moral education.

Japanese.—Children learn to read and write the Japanese syllabary (*kana*), proceeding to common Chinese characters. By the end of the fourth year they should have learned both the *kana* syllabaries of 47 characters each (besides variations), and perhaps 700 Chinese characters. There are two reading-books for each year, a certain amount of positive information, historical, geographical, or scientific, being conveyed in the third and fourth years. The writing of Japanese is really a kind of painting, and penmanship is reckoned a fine art, specimens being hung on walls. It has, moreover, its patron deity. Tenjin, in whose temples children dedicate their masterpieces. This writing of characters with bold free strokes from the shoulder is a splendid training for hand and eye from the first.

Arithmetic.—Beginning with the counting and writing of numbers, both in Japanese and in our notation, the children proceed to the four elementary processes, with numbers up to 100. In the fourth year the addition and subtraction of decimals are taught, with some knowledge of weights, measures, coins, and time; also addition and subtraction on the Japanese abacus.

Gymnastics.—The smallest children begin with suitable games, marching to music, etc., proceeding to drill and calisthenic exercises; of gymnastics proper, in the usual sense of that word, one does not see much in any Japanese school.

Drawing, singing, and manual work may be introduced, if desired; girls frequently receive a little instruction in *sewing*, which amounts to little more than learning how to manage the needle and scissors. Out of 25,500 ordinary schools, 8,627 provide additional subjects; in 8,562 this is sewing, in 39 sewing and manual work, and in 26 manual work.

126. How much does a child know at the end of the ordinary course? From the nature of the language the amount of time and energy devoted to the forms of knowledge is out of all proportion to the amount of matter acquired. At the end of the course the ordinary child can barely spell out the simplest bit of news (with the help of the *kana* characters affixed to the Chinese), write the simplest communication, or cast up the simplest accounts. Moreover, these hundreds of characters tend to fade from the mind rapidly unless constantly revised and reinforced. Ask boys who have left school for two or three years, waitresses in inns, jinrikisha men, and other humble persons, and it will generally be found that they can spell out a bit of *kana*, but cannot write anything beyond their own names. The same is revealed at the examination of the new conscripts each year; those who quitted school at the end of the ordinary course are practically illiterate by the time they reach the age for service. The men themselves feel this to be a disadvantage, and there is an increasing tendency to keep up their schooling, by attending higher or supplementary courses, until the time of their service. All the educational authorities are agreed that the present course of four years is too short, and that it ought to be extended by at least two years. This does not say that the four years' drilling of mind and body is of no use at all; on the contrary, the physical and moral effects, so far as they go, seem excellent. But most of the mental energy expended has been given to the cultivation of the memory, already by hereditary influence extraordinarily well developed.

127. In the higher primary course the subjects are morals, Japanese, arithmetic, Japanese history, geography, science, drawing, singing, and physical exercises; but under some circumstances singing and science may be omitted. It has recently been ordered that either agriculture, commerce, or manual work (all previously optional) must be added; for girls there is needle-work. If the school has a four years' course, as most of them have, English may be added. In a recent year, out of 8,280 higher primary schools, 1,178 provided courses in agricul-

How much is
learned

Higher pri-
mary curri-
culum.

ture, 62 in commerce, 34 in manual work, and 581 in English, two or more of these being at times combined in the same school.

Morals.—The moral teaching of the lower course is continued and expanded; fuller details are given elsewhere.

Japanese.—The number of Chinese characters learned is enlarged up to a limit of 1,200, and various styles of writing and of composition are taught. Many educational writers, however, have severely criticised the teaching of the vernacular in primary schools, it being said that children express themselves in a very slovenly and imperfect manner, and receive no proper drill in the art of conversation.

Arithmetic.—To the elementary arithmetic exercises in vulgar and decimal fractions, proportion, and percentages are added, as well as multiplication and division on the abacus; simple mensuration and book-keeping may also be taught, and the children are "required to be proficient in mental arithmetic." Whatever they may be at school, few Japanese in ordinary life seem capable of the simplest mental calculation; the shopman or postal clerk is helpless without his abacus, on which he will total the value of a 4-sen and two 2-sen stamps, or subtract 75 sen from 100. This has been excused on the ground that there is no room for mental arithmetic in a Japanese head, crowded with thousands of arbitrary ideographs.

History.—Here the object is to "give the children the outline of the evolution of Japanese nationality, and to foster in them the sense of honour becoming in subjects of this empire." The teaching follows the orthodox lines, the special creation of Japan and her people, the early doings of the gods therein, the divine descent of the Emperors beginning with Jimmu Tenno, 660 B.C., the continuity of the imperial line, which by the help of polygamy and adoption has indeed been unbroken from a period preceding all that Western scholars are prepared to accept as genuine history; and the illustrious deeds of successive Emperors. The children are then taken on to other distinguished persons, the bravery of the nation, the progress of

literature and foreign intercourse, etc., the lessons being illustrated as far as possible by pictures, maps, and specimens.

Geography.—This is mainly the geography of Japan, though in the third year of the full course outlines of foreign geography are added, especially of such countries as are connected with Japan. Teachers are directed to foster the spirit of patriotism, and to maintain connection between the lessons in history and science and those in geography. The latter are illustrated by globes, maps, pictures, and specimens; and many schools now introduce the subject by making the children draw plans of the classroom, school, village, etc. Others, more ambitious, begin directly with the village or town. Others, again, still pursue the older methods, the teacher merely expounding a text-book, which the children commit as far as possible to memory, and illustrate by copying maps out of an atlas.

Science.—In the first two years the commonest natural phenomena are dealt with, together with the names, forms, and uses of the most important animals, plants, and minerals, and the general laws of life and development. In the third and fourth years the classes proceed to common physical and chemical phenomena, the principal elements and compounds, the construction of simple apparatus, the elements of human physiology and hygiene, and the relations of plants, animals, and minerals to each other and to man. Teachers are directed to base the work on actual observation, and to illustrate it by pictures, models, specimens, and simple apparatus; special attention being paid to topics connected with agriculture, aquatic products, industries, or domestic economy, according to circumstances; as also to the nature and use of the principal objects made of animal or vegetable substances. A text-book covering the whole ground is provided, and the children are shown how to dissect botanical specimens, at times they are taken on collecting excursions, but these are more common in the middle school.

Drawing.—The average capacity of the Japanese pupil for this subject may be ranked far above that of the European.

The children are taught to draw various forms from real objects or copies, especially those of common occurrence, or met with in their other lessons; sometimes they draw designs of their own, and simple geometrical drawing is added in the fourth year.

Singing of a simple character is now so extensively practised that the missionaries declare it to be exercising an appreciable effect upon the standard of singing in their churches. A favourite song describes the chief towns on Japan's most famous highway, the Tokaido, connecting Tokyo and Kyoto; others are of a moral or patriotic turn.

Gymnastics.—Common exercises are practised, and suitable games; in addition boys are taught military drill with miniature rifles. Swimming is sometimes added. Large schools have a special drill-instructor; elsewhere the exercises are directed by the class-teachers. These seem ingenious in inventing games for the children; some of them visit Tokyo in the summer vacation in order to learn new exercises. Boys and girls commonly play apart from each other, and those carrying babies are excused violent exercise. School-walks are common on fine days in spring and autumn, even small children being taken a couple of miles, while boys of the higher course attempt much longer excursions. School sports are sometimes held in a field or public park; and occasionally the teachers of two or more schools will arrange for a joint meeting of such a kind.

Manual work.—Simple work with paper, clay, straw, wood, bamboo, metal, or other available local material, is given, but few schools as yet practise it, the teachers being not yet trained in the subject, which is of recent introduction. The specimens seen were mostly models of common objects in split cane and dried peas.

Sewing.—For girls "manual work" is replaced by needle-work as applied to common garments, together with hints on the qualities of different materials, the preservation and washing of clothes, etc.

Agriculture.—Topics suited to local conditions are selected, including soils, irrigation, manures, implements, planting, silk-

culture, etc. In a fishing locality instruction connected with marine industries may be introduced. The teacher is furnished with a text-book, the boys take notes; little practical work is done, partly for want of ground, partly because country boys are supposed to be familiar with the practice already. At one time Japanese boys, after getting a little education, were inclined to think manual labour beneath them, it was hoped that by introducing agriculture into the primary course an interest in it might be cultivated, and the boys be rendered more likely to return to the land after leaving school. It is in this interest rather than in any positive acquisition of knowledge that its value is considered to lie.

Commerce.—Town schools not unfrequently introduce such commercial topics as buying and selling, currency, transportation, insurance, etc., as well as a simple system of commercial book-keeping. It is laid down that such topics are to be kept in mind during other lessons also, and the high importance of credit is to be explained. Here also a text-book is supplied for the use of teachers.

English is taught by some higher primary schools right through their course; others limit it to the third and fourth years, whilst there are entire prefectures where it is not taught at all. It is naturally most likely to be found in or near places like Tokyo and Yokohama, yet turns up unexpectedly in remote towns in the interior. Where foreign visitors congregate, the village-children sometimes obtain a little tuition in English after school hours, even when it is not included in the curriculum. The syllabus lays down that pronunciation should be taught first, and then the reading and writing of simple words and syllables, followed by exercises in conversation. The teacher is, of course, almost always a Japanese, though in a place like Yokohama a foreigner may be found even in a primary school, teaching 14 hours a week for £5 10s. a month. The results of this primary study of English are in most cases very slight.

128. Again we may ask, how much does a boy know at the end? He knows all the varieties of Japanese characters, and

How much
learned.

from 1,000 to 1,200 Chinese ideographs, together sufficient for reading any ordinary newspaper. He should be able to write a simple letter, to keep simple accounts, to calculate on the abacus for the purposes of a shop. In addition he has learned something of the geography and history of his own land, and has acquired a few ideas about Japan's neighbours; he is filled with the sense of Japan's uniqueness, her superiority to the rest of the world, the glory of her Emperor, to die for whom may be his highest privilege in the future. He may have learned a little of agricultural or commercial theory, and the manual training imparted by the mere writing of his vernacular has been extended by the practice of drawing. His memory is stored with a few simple songs which he can chant on the road or in the fields; and his body has been strengthened by constant physical exercises. His faculties should have been sharpened by simple lessons in natural and physical science. Critics, however, assert that there is still too much of memory and rote-work, too little cultivation of reason; and it is doubtful if the foundations have been laid of any habit of strenuous work or attention. At least, it seemed to me that the children tired rapidly of a lesson, and that attention seemed to wander after they had been in the room some thirty minutes.

Time tables.

129. In the appendix are given specimen time-tables of an ordinary and a higher primary school. The former is expected to work from 18 to 28 hours a week, the latter from 24 to 30; but in half-time schools the number of hours for one class may be as low as 12. In addition, the director of the school may reduce the daily hours for no more than 20 days before and after the summer vacation. In the lower course 2 hours a week are given to morals, 10-15 to reading and writing, 5-6 to arithmetic, and 4 to physical exercises; in the higher course, 2 hours to morals, 10 to the vernacular, 4 to arithmetic, 3 to history and geography, 2 to science, and 3 to physical exercise; but these may be slightly modified, according to the other subjects introduced.

130. It may be of interest to compare these curricula with those of an Indian system, for which purpose, I select Bombay as my example. Comparison
with Bombay

Lower primary course.

<i>Japan (4 classes).</i>	<i>Bombay (2-3 classes).</i>
Morals.
Reading and writing.	Reading and writing
Arithmetic.	Arithmetic.
.....	Geography.
(Reading lessons are illustrated)	Object lessons
(Optional.)	Simple drawing

Upper primary course.

<i>Japan (years i, ii)</i>	<i>Bombay (2 classes)</i>
Morals.
Vernacular	Vernacular
Arithmetic.	Arithmetic
Japanese history.	Indian history
Japanese geography	Indian geography
Science	Object lessons
Drawing	Drawing
Singing.	..
Drill.
Agriculture, commerce, or manual work : English in some	

Advanced primary course

<i>Japan (years iii, iv)</i>	<i>Bombay (3 classes).</i>
Morals.	
Vernacular.	Vernacular
Arithmetic	Arithmetic
...	Euclid I
Japanese history.	Indian history.
Geography, general.	Geography, general.
.....	„ physical
Science (physical and chemical phenomena, physiology, and hygiene).	Sanitary primer
Drawing
Singing.
Drill.
Agriculture, commerce, or manual work : English in some.

Continuation
classes

131. Supplementary classes may be established for those who are unable to pass on to the next stage, and may include practical instruction bearing on the local industries. When the distance to the nearest higher school is too great for the children, an ordinary school often opens a supplementary class for them; they read the books of the higher course, and the teacher gives them such time as he can spare. In return they can sometimes help him with the younger children. There are other cases where boys cannot spare the time to go on with a full course, yet are able to attend a supplementary class for a smaller number of hours in the week, or in the evening after their work is done. The moral function of such night-schools is as much appreciated as any; they flourish especially in the winter, when farm work is slack, and time hangs heavy on the lad's hands. Many prefectures have one in almost every village during the winter. The attendance varies from 15 to 50 or 60 in a school; youths of 18 or 20 come, and if they do not learn very much, at least they are kept out of mischief. It is admitted that sometimes the boys are too tired and sleepy to do much, but even so they might be worse employed. Nor is the work considered too much for the teacher, as he gets away from his day-school early in the afternoon, and his labours therein are not very exhausting. The cost is small, the ordinary buildings and equipment being utilised, and the teacher getting a trifle of extra pay, perhaps as much as 10 shillings a month. In many parts educational associations and well-to-do villagers keep an eye on these schools, and educational inspectors visit them; there is no reason to suppose that they are shams like some in India. Girls never attend night-schools, though they may constantly be found in supplementary classes held by day. In 1903 there were 2,136 ordinary and 224 higher schools provided with supplementary courses, with 34,000 pupils in the former and 5,000 in the latter. But it must be added that the work is not always literally "supplementary;" in some cases the books already read in the school are simply read over again, whether

from want of enterprise on the part of teachers, or from want of means to purchase more books.

132. Apart from the regular and supplementary classes the primary schools are seldom utilised for extraneous lectures, lantern exhibitions, or the like. A few schools sometimes combine for a lantern show, a few more possess lanterns of their own; but a school soon exhausts its stock of slides, and there is no arrangement for feeding them from a central stock, as there is in France. The slides exhibited are usually war-scenes or current events; others illustrate the topics of the moral lessons.

Extraneous
lectures, etc.

133. The primary and secondary systems overlap by two years; whilst the full primary course is eight years, children can pass to the secondary school after six. If this were all, it might be supposed to be a mode of surmounting the standing difficulty of providing both for those who are going on, and those who are content with a primary education. But it is not all, for children constantly stay seven or eight years at the primary school, and then pass to the secondary. The present arrangement, indeed, does not seem to be the result of any conscious effort to provide a proper articulation of the two systems, but to be partially accidental. At the first the University exercised great influence on the institutions below it, and the middle school course was devised mainly with reference to it, and not to the primary system. The primary course was then intended to be one of eight years for all, but it was thought that this made boys too old at the beginning of the middle course, and the whole course too long, so they were admitted after six years. But then the number of applicants rapidly grew too great for the accommodation available, and most middle schools were compelled to institute a competitive entrance examination. Hence only the best or most fortunate boys can now enter the middle school after six years of primary education, and the rest perforce wait another year or two. Are these years wasted, or is there any difference between the boys from the second, third, and fourth years,

Co-ordination
of primary
and secondary
systems.

who are all taught together in the lowest class of the middle school? It is replied that there is practically no difference, since the boys who fail to get in at the first attempt are the duller ones who require another year or two of schooling to bring them up to the level of those who do pass; and also that ordinary boys, if they do scrape through at the first attempt, find the middle-school work very hard, and are always at the bottom of the class. All this implies that the final two years are not wasted, but when the direct question of their value is put, a difference of opinion reveals itself. Some say that a boy learns a great deal in that time; others that he does not learn much that is new, but consolidates what he has already acquired; others, again, that the middle-school teachers have a poor opinion of the elementary teaching for those two years. If we take the case of mathematics, we find that a boy does only arithmetic in the primary school; hence, if he stays there for the full period, up to 14 at least he is doing arithmetic, and then for the first year of the middle course he is still doing arithmetic; so that he is at least 15, if not older, before even beginning any other branch of mathematics. Moreover, the atmosphere of the primary school is easygoing; there is little preparation for hard work, or concentration of attention; and an undue prolongation of this course for those who have to face the secondary school is likely to leave them ill-prepared to tackle the multitude of subjects encountered there. In fact, the number who fall away from the middle schools in the first year or so is enormous, and one of the various reasons assigned is always the unexpected difficulty of the course.

Number of
teachers.

134. The 27,000 primary schools of Japan employ over 109,000 teachers; and the adequate training of so large a force is a difficult problem, especially when changes are often made in the curriculum, and new subjects, such as agriculture or manual work, suddenly introduced. If the lower and higher schools are reckoned independently, we get the following results:—

	Schools.	Teachers.	Pupils.	Teachers per school.	Pupils per teacher.
Ordinary	25,515	81,124	4,100,356	32	55
Higher	8,283	27,994	995,805	34	35

Of the total number of teachers nearly 17,500 (or 16 per cent.) are females. The regulations prescribe that one regular teacher should be provided for each class, but it has been impossible to train enough for this purpose, and at present there are about 58,000 regular teachers to some 97,000 classes. Hence the provision of one regular and one assistant teacher for every two classes has been sanctioned.

135. Primary teachers are divided into six classes :—(1) regular teachers, competent to teach in either course, (2) regular ordinary teachers, competent for the lower course only, (3) special teachers, competent to teach one or more of such subjects as drawing, singing, gymnastics, sewing, English, etc., (4) assistant teachers, competent to assist the first class, (5) assistant ordinary teachers, competent to assist the second class, and (6) provisional teachers. All except the last must be provided with a corresponding license. These licenses are either *general*, granted by the Minister for Education, or *prefectural*, granted by the local Governor. Further particulars as to the conditions under which they are granted are given in the chapter on teachers. In 1902 the general licenses granted numbered 238 (five only to females), whilst the prefectural licenses amounted to nearly 27,000, of which nearly 3,400 went to graduates of normal schools, and the rest to the successful applicants out of over 62,000 candidates. They were distributed as follows :—

Regular	...	4,245
Regular ordinary	...	5,901
Special	...	3,331
Assistant	...	3,019
Assistant ordinary	...	10,321
Total	...	26,819

Qualifications
of teachers.

Out of these 20,110 were men and 6,709 women. As to the proportion of teachers who are normal school graduates no information has been given since 1897, when the relation was as follows :—

	Regular.	Assistant.	Total.
Normal graduates	17,507	119	17,626
Otherwise qualified	25,582	17,625	43,207

From which it would appear that about 29 per cent. of licensed teachers have passed through the normal school course. Besides these grades there are the unlicensed teachers, usually young men, themselves graduates of the primary school, who are teaching while preparing themselves for the licensing examination. On the number of these the Minister's report throws no light, but a writer in *Japan by the Japanese* asserts that 22,000 out of 102,000 are unlicensed. Middle-school graduates are also to be found amongst primary teachers.

Appointment
of teachers.

136. The directors of public primary schools are appointed from amongst regular teachers in such schools. They and their teachers are nominally appointed by the local Governor, on the representation of the mayor or headman; in practice, the director (or, if there is none, the inspector) selects the teachers. For misconduct they are liable to reprimand, reduction of salary, suspension for from one month to two years, or dismissal. Disciplinary measures are taken by the Governor, an appeal lying to the Minister of State.

Work, and
length of
service.

137. Primary teachers usually continue to serve in their own province, even when they are not normal-school graduates who are bound to serve in the same prefecture for at least ten years. Female teachers commonly go on for a time at any rate, even after marriage, the grandparents taking charge of the children, if any. The weekly hours may be 28 or 30, in addition to some supervision of the playground; and one of them is probably told off to sleep in the school at night, if it is not otherwise occupied. In case of sickness a teacher may

absent himself for 60 days on full pay, and for 30 more on half-pay. Part of the vacation is often spent in attending a *holiday course of instruction in some subject or other*; and most teachers belong to a local educational association which holds periodical meetings. An analysis of the years of service of teachers used to be furnished by the Minister's report, but this has been discontinued since 1897, when the regular teachers were thus distributed:—

Less than 1 year's service	5,749
Between 1 and 5	14,249
Between 5 and 11	14,774
Between 11 and 15	5,955
Of 15 years and over	2,866
Total				43,593

About 46 per cent., therefore, had less than five years' service. The same report had an analysis of their ages, from which it appeared that out of 60,800 teachers one-half were under 30; nearly 3,000 of them were under 20, and 334 were over 60.

138. The Governor may discharge regular teachers temporarily, (1) when they are disabled by wounds or sickness, (2) when their services are no longer required, (3) when they have entered a training institution, (4) when they are accused of any criminal offence, and (5) when they engage in military service. In the first two cases the term of discharge is one year; in the third and fifth cases it lasts for 3 months after the end of the reason for it. As a rule no salary is paid. A regular teacher may be permanently retired by the Governor, (1) if he is physically or mentally disabled, (2) if he has asked leave to retire, (3) if the school is closed, (4) when the term of temporary discharge has expired. There is, however, no fixed age for retirement.

Retirement of teachers.

139. The salaries of primary teachers are paid by the city, town or village to which the school belongs; the amount is prescribed by regulation, but may be reduced within a fixed limit according to local circumstances, and, with their consent. Regular teachers are divided into two grades and ten classes,

Teachers' pay.

rising respectively from £1 to £6 10s., or from 22 shillings to £7 10s. a month; but a first-class teacher may be allowed increments up to £10. Special teachers are graded in eight classes, rising from 16 shillings to 70, or from 18 to £4; and assistant teachers in six classes, rising from 12 shillings to 36, or from 14 shillings to £2. The average pay of teachers has risen steadily for many years. In 1893 a male regular teacher received on the average less than £1 a month, a female little more than 16 shillings; but in 1903 the averages stood at 32 shillings and 26 respectively. Or, if we group both sexes together, regular teachers in ordinary schools draw from 16 shillings to £7 10s., the average being 29 shillings; assistants from 8 shillings to 40, the average being 17. In higher schools the regular teachers receive from 16 shillings to £6 10s. with an average of £2; and assistants from 12 to 46 shillings, with an average of 25. Out of 85,000 teachers only 71 were drawing less than 10 shillings a month, and 6½ of these taught only special subjects, such special teachers descending as low as 2 shillings monthly. An extra allowance is granted to those who teach for more than 30 hours a week, as also to those who are on duty at night. For house-rent, also, an allowance is sometimes made, *e. g.*, 7 shillings a month in a school at Yokohama. But on the whole the pay of primary teachers is considered too low, though the work is held more honourable and agreeable than some more lucrative callings; and, special teachers being excluded, there remain over 68,000 who draw less than £2 a month, said to be the minimum on which it is possible to keep house. Attempts have been made to equalize urban and rural salaries, but on the whole the former seem to be higher still, since it is stated that the average pay of regular teachers is only 24 shillings (ordinary) or 32 (higher) in towns and villages, as against 32 (ordinary) or 40 (higher) in cities,

Additional
salaries for
long service.

140. One mode of equalizing salaries, and at the same time assisting primary education, is by the annual distribution (since 1900) of about £100,000 amongst the prefectures, to constitute stock funds for additional salaries to primary

teachers, any deficiency being made good out of the local taxes. An additional allowance is granted to those teachers who have served meritoriously in the same place for five consecutive years, and an extra allowance to those serving in single-classed schools, or in remote districts. The first five years of approved service earn a yearly grant of 48 shillings for a regular teacher, or 36 for an assistant ; and for every additional five years the former gets 36, and the latter 24, more. For a single-classed school 48 shillings, and for a remote district 36 shillings, may be granted yearly. In 1902 over £82,000 were paid in this way to about 27,000 persons, of whom 800 were females ; and it is stated that the system has already proved beneficial in stimulating the zeal of teachers, as well as in securing a better distribution of them ; but presumably it has been suspended by the war.

141. After 15 years' service regular teachers become entitled to pensions if ordered to retire after the age of 60, on account of physical disability, on account of the closing or reorganisation of schools, or at the end of a temporary discharge. For 15 years' service the annual pension would be $\frac{1}{4}$ of the salary last received, $\frac{1}{40}$ being added for every full year up to 40 years of service. Further, the family (*i. e.*, widow, minor children, parents, or grandparents) of a regular teacher are entitled to a pension, (1) when the teacher has died in office after more than 15 years' service ; (2) when he has died in the discharge of his duty after a shorter service ; (3) when he has died while in receipt of a pension. This family pension is equal to that to which the deceased would have been entitled. If there is no one entitled to receive the pension, but the teacher has left brothers or sisters under 20, or physically disabled from earning a living and having no one to depend on, a sum of money equal to the pension for from 1 to 5 years may be granted to them. If after a service of less than 15 years a teacher dies from causes not connected with his duty, a bonus is granted to his family equal to one month's salary *plus* 2 per cent. of the yearly salary for each full year after two years' service. Lastly,

Teachers'
pensions.

if a regular teacher retires after more than one year's service, and not for his own convenience, a gratuity may be awarded him of half his monthly salary for each year of service. To secure such pensions, bonuses, and gratuities, other officials in public schools have to pay one per cent. of their salary to the national treasury; but teachers are excused from this. Assistant teachers may receive a pension equal to $\frac{1}{4}$ of their salary, but only when they have retired on account of wounds or sickness. Pension applications are dealt with by a committee in each prefectural office. The pension fund is maintained, primarily by contributions from the cities, towns, and villages, to the interest on which the Treasury adds a certain proportion and any deficiency is made up out of the local funds of the prefecture concerned. Thus, in 1902 the contributions of towns and villages amounted to £11,900; the interest on the pension fund came to £5,500, to which the Treasury added £4,400, and £3,400 were appropriated out of local rates. The pensions, bonuses, and gratuities paid in the same year amounted to £13,270, distributed amongst 2,645 persons, the average annual value of a pension being £5 4s.

School books. 142. The selection of school books was entrusted to local committees, into which various abuses crept, giving rise to grave scandals. In consequence a number of books have been prepared and copyrighted by the Department, and for morals, Japanese reading, history, and geography, only these may be used. For other subjects the local Governor may select from the books copyrighted by the Department or approved by it, 3 months' notice being given. A new book should be introduced from the bottom of the school, and should not be changed for four years. In the primary school a child usually has to procure two readers, a moral text-book, and two copybooks for each year; these cost about $5\frac{1}{2}$ pence for the first year, about $7\frac{1}{2}$ pence later; in the higher course they may cost a shilling or more.

School hygiene. 143. The subject of school hygiene was taken up by the Department energetically in 1894, in its various aspects, such as the avoidance of overpressure in the curriculum, the encourage-

ment of physical exercises, the sanitary arrangements of the school, and the provision of medical supervision. The instructions issued in consequence are quoted in the chapter on physical training. In 1898 a system of school doctors was introduced, and though it has been impossible to provide all schools with them, already one-third of the primary schools have been placed under such supervision, the doctor coming once in two months, once a month, twice a week, etc., according to circumstances. In one prefecture the Governor has prohibited the use of violet-coloured pencils by children, doctors having declared them to be poisonous; in some parts discussions of a hygienic character are held from time to time with children or their parents; in one large town the teachers combine to call together the children in the middle of the summer vacation, to see that they are all right, and to advise them about their health. A set of simple rules had been printed for this purpose, which were distributed to them; *e.g.*, don't sit up late at night, or disturb people by noisy play at night; when it is cool in the morning get out your books and do a little work; ask your mother's leave before bathing, and don't stay too long in the river; don't drink too much when you are thirsty, but ask your mother, and see that the water is boiled; don't eat too much; eat only ripe fruit; keep yourself clean, and change your clothes if they are damp with perspiration, etc.

144. In 1902 the total expenditure of local bodies on public Finance. primary schools amounted to £3,150,000, giving an average annual cost of £117 per school, or about 12 shillings per pupil; ten years before each pupil cost only about 5 shillings. The whole amount is 70 per cent. of the total local expenditure on education, and 60 per cent. of the total public expenditure on education, as roughly estimated. The objects of expenditure were:—salaries, 55·2 per cent.; buildings, 22·9; articles of consumption, 4·4; repairs, 3·3; furniture, 3·2; books and apparatus, 3·1; travelling expenses, 1·2; rent, 0·9; pupils' expenses, 0·2; and miscellaneous, 5·5. On the other hand the sources of expenditure were the following:—local taxation, 61·8 per cent.;

national treasury, 19.1; fees, 10.2; donations, 4.6; from school property, 1.5; and miscellaneous, 2.6. It appears then that four-fifths of the cost are met from public sources. In view, however, of the increasing difficulty of providing funds for the constantly growing expense, attempts have been made to create special sources of income in the form of *School Stock Funds*, the income from which may not be diverted to other purposes. Tuition and other fees, and the surplus of the annual expenditure of a town or village, may be reserved for such a fund, along with a portion of the school rates, and donations not otherwise assigned. In 1903 cities, towns, and villages possessed stock funds belonging to primary schools of the value of £1,600,000. In addition, in 1899, the sum of £1,000,000 was reserved from the Chinese indemnity, the interest being distributed annually amongst the prefectures, partly for the subventioning of public primary schools, and partly to be lent at 5 per cent. to cities, towns, and villages for the provision of primary school sites and buildings. At the end of March 1903 the amount available for distribution was £137,000, and of loans granted £94,000, of which 80 per cent. went to villages. If one of these smaller bodies is unable to meet its expenditure, it can call on the rural district, or failing that the prefecture, for a grant-in-aid.

Fees.

145. Tuition fees used to be levied in all primary schools, but are now remitted whenever possible in those of the ordinary grade. In special cases, however, the Governor may sanction a fee up to 5 pence a month in cities, or half of that amount in towns and villages. In higher primary schools the fees are not to exceed 15 pence in cities, or $7\frac{1}{2}$ pence in towns and villages. In Tokyo and Yokohama, however, if not elsewhere, as much as two shillings a month is charged in higher primary schools. Local disasters, such as floods or fires, or the expense of rebuilding schools, may compel communities to levy a fee for a time even in the lower grade school; the present war has been the excuse in some cases, though the children of those serving in the field are themselves exempted. The fee is the same for all the

years in the school-course; it may be wholly or partially remitted by the mayor on the score of poverty, or reduced in the case of several children attending from one family. On the other hand, it may be increased in the case of children coming from outside; thus, in one place the village children were paying 3 pence for the higher course, but outsiders were charged $7\frac{1}{2}$ pence on the ground that the whole expense of keeping the school in repair fell on the village. The total amount received from fees in 1902 was £322,000, giving an average annual fee from each primary pupil of about 15 pence; but only 14 per cent. of the children in the ordinary course paid any fee at all.

146. In the year quoted £146,000 were received in Donations, donations to primary schools. An interesting example was encountered in the shape of a plot of ground outside a village with a notice stating that an area of so much had been planted with pine trees by the school. It turned out that the land, now worth £130, had been given by the village to the school, the boys of which had planted it with young trees, the timber to be sold for the benefit of the school after 50 years or so.

147. A few specific examples are appended to show the actual cost of individual schools. Cost of particular schools.

• Ordinary school,	28 children, annual cost £	23
„ „	74 „ „ „ „	28
„ „	650 „ „ „ „	340
„ „	1,750 „ „ „ „	500
Higher „	500 „ „ „ „	320
„ „	1,100 „ „ „ „	700
• Ordinary and higher,	180 „ „ „ „	160
„ „	1,000 „ „ „ „	900
„ „	2,100 „ „ „ „	3,100

Chapter V.—SECONDARY EDUCATION.

148. Secondary education is imparted in middle schools for boys, higher schools for girls, and “miscellaneous” schools of a similar grade, as well as in agricultural, commercial, and industrial schools of secondary rank. These institutions of a technical character will be dealt with separately. The Institutions for secondary education.

miscellaneous schools are mostly maintained by private agencies, the secondary school being in some cases only part of a larger institution. Public secondary schools, however, are invariably distinct from both primary and higher institutions. The schools for boys, moreover, are entirely separate from those for girls, and it is convenient to reserve the latter for a chapter on female education. Hence the scope of the present chapter is limited to the public secondary schools for the general education of boys, known as middle schools, together with those private ones which conform to the same standard. In all of them English is an important subject, but in all other subjects the text-books and the teaching are alike in the vernacular.

Middle Schools.

History.

149. The modern secondary schools of Japan, like those of India, have little indigenous foundation. There were, indeed, schools in feudal Japan of a secondary grade; but they were limited to the sons of *samurai* or of priests, and taught little beyond the Chinese classics, some arithmetic, and a great deal of physical exercise. The Educational Code of 1872 divided the whole country into 256 middle school districts, a symmetrical arrangement before long abandoned, the number being limited in 1886 to one for each prefecture, which would give only 47 for the whole country. In its turn the limitation was relaxed in 1896, and abolished in 1899, when all local bodies were authorised to establish such schools if they saw fit. The year 1894 was an important one in the history of middle schools for two changes in particular. For some time previously all middle school students had been required to study both English and either French or German; but the burden of two European languages for boys, the majority of whom would have no practical use for either of them, was found intolerable; under existing circumstances even one could hardly be mastered, and so in 1894 the second was struck out of the programme. The other change was an attempt to provide a bifurcation of studies for those who might be destined for practical pursuits rather than for the

university; agricultural or commercial studies were allowed to be combined with the general subjects for the fourth and fifth years of the course, or else "technical middle schools" might be established, in which technical subjects were introduced throughout the whole course. The experiment came to little; the time was hardly ripe for it, literary studies being still greatly preferred to technical. I believe that only one technical middle school was ever established, and but few of the optional technical courses. The war with China followed, and then the great expansion of Japan already referred to; industrial, commercial, and agricultural schools began to be established everywhere, rendering unnecessary the provision of such courses in the ordinary middle schools. The middle school curriculum, therefore, was once more made uniform, and its object is now declared to be to "provide a higher general education for boys of the middle and upper classes, affording instruction in such arts and sciences as are necessary to them in the discharge of their duties, and at the same time to prepare them for higher and special education." In other words, there is now no attempt to distinguish between preparation for college and general preparation for life; and those who want less of the latter than the full middle school course can migrate to a school of a more technical character.

150. The following figures show the enormous development of middle schools within a few years, both public and private schools being included in the first two columns:—

Year.				Schools.	Pupils	Public expenditure.
1889	53	11,530	£ 28,500
1892	62	16,189	35,500
1897	157	52,071	165,200
1902	258	95,027	474,000

But in spite of the multiplication of schools the applicants for admission have increased so much more rapidly that the percentage admitted declines each year; 25,000 applicants in 1896

had grown to 53,000 in 1902, whilst the proportion admitted fell from 71 per cent. to 56. The reason is partly to be found in the development of primary education, but still more in the growing feeling that even ordinary citizens require something more than primary education alone. Moreover, the graduates of middle schools enjoy various privileges; they are admitted to the higher technical and professional schools, as well as to the preparatory schools for the universities; they are allowed to defer their military service, and to serve on more favourable terms; and they are eligible for certain official positions. On the other hand, the Minister's report for 1902 declares that "the spirit of the times that once impelled the foundation or enlargement of middle schools or girls' higher schools has somewhat subsided, and attention has now begun to be directed chiefly to internal improvement." It appears, indeed, to be the present policy of the Department to induce young men to enter technical or professional schools,* rather than to spend five years at a middle school, since they cannot all go on to higher institutions; to which it is replied by some critics that a smattering of commerce, technology, or agriculture, is not to be compared with the liberal education of the middle schools. The former, moreover, can be picked up in practical life, whilst the latter cannot; hence even more middle schools are demanded. The tendency seems to be for all who can afford it to get as much general education as possible before beginning to specialise; but poverty alone drives many from the general to the technical schools, where tuition is often free. In the meanwhile all are agreed that the middle schools stand in much need of internal improvement, and the want of trained teachers is keenly felt. At present there are 258 schools in all, with 4,680 teachers, and 95,000 students.

Establish-
ment.

151. Middle schools being institutions for general education, the duty of supplying them is thrown upon local bodies. Government maintains only one, a practising-school in connection with

* *Japan by the Japanese*, p. 240.

the higher normal school at Tokyo, with 28 teachers and 331 pupils; to which a second will have to be added for the new higher normal school at Hiroshima. Every prefecture is bound to maintain one, or more if necessary; while rural districts, cities, towns, and villages may establish them, if by so doing they do not interfere with primary education. There are now 221 public schools, with 3,900 teachers and 79,000 pupils. This gives an average of from four to five for each prefecture, but two have nine apiece, and one has only a single school. Those belonging to the same prefecture are distinguished by numbers. A country town is proud of being selected as the site of a great public school, and the townspeople are usually forward with contributions and help of one kind or another. Middle schools may also be established by private persons, and there are 36 such, with 734 teachers and 15,600 pupils. Of these 22 are in Tokyo. Some temples have a middle school attached to them, but the curriculum is of the ordinary type, without any religious teaching; and a few are maintained out of funds established by former feudal lords. In all cases the establishment or closing of a middle school requires the approval of the Minister.

152. The average distribution of public middle schools gives one for each 66½ square miles, or 178,000 of population. Most of them make some provision for boarders, and many other students find accommodation in the neighbourhood; but there remain a number who have to walk considerable distances every day. I encountered some who in the heat of summer tramped 7 or 8 miles daily to school and the same distance home again, involving five hours' walk a day, besides their work. Some can avail themselves of the railway, but the slowness and infrequency of Japanese trains must cause much waste of time; I have seen boys dangling about a station for a couple of hours, waiting for a train homewards. Electric trams are occasionally available, but the bicycle seems little used as a means of locomotion. In point of strength the private schools lead the way with an average of 434 pupils; the public schools have 357, the Government institution 331. In respect of teachers, however, the last

stands first, with 28; the private schools have an average of 20, the public 18. Many of the schools visited had six, seven, or even eight hundred boys, though by the regulations the number is supposed to be limited to 400.

Supervision. 153. Middle schools are under the jurisdiction of the prefectural inspectors, and most are inspected from time to time, perhaps once or twice a year, and once in two years by the departmental inspector from Tokyo. But these arrangements vary, and one school visited had only been inspected once or twice in six years. Private schools receive no aid from public funds, but are liable to inspection, especially with reference to their registers, and the qualifications of the teaching staff; one private school, belonging to a mission, spoke of this inspection as being carried out very strictly once or twice a year; others said that they had not seen much of the authorities since the initial inspection to qualify for the Government privileges.

Recognition of schools. 154. Only schools which have passed a searching test by the inspectors are "recognised" for these privileges, which consist mainly of the right to defer military service, the right to enter higher Government institutions, and the right to secure a teaching license under certain conditions. The experience of the mission-schools has shown that it is impossible for them to secure and retain pupils unless they are recognised by Government, as all the leading ones now seem to be. There is no recognition other than this, none for instance by universities; any graduate of a middle school recognised by the Department has the right to present himself for the entrance examination of the higher schools which lead to the universities. The rules for the recognition of schools will be found in the appendix.

Buildings. 155. The buildings of middle schools are probably always their own property, and specially erected, the expenditure on "rent for grounds and houses" amounting to less than 0.3 per cent. of the total public expenditure on such schools. Several have been erected within the former grounds of a Daimyo's castle; and the general tendency is to build at a little distance from the town, for health, for quiet, and for greater security from

fire. The buildings (unless in some mission schools) are invariably of wood, often two-storied; and commonly run in parallel lines connected by covered passages. The school is set in a large, but exceedingly bare, compound, which affords space for drilling, as well as for tennis and baseball. Plans and estimates are prepared in the prefectural office, with the help of the educational section, and are usually submitted to the director of the school for any minor suggestions, so that there are trifling differences between schools even in the same prefecture. The standard regulations for secondary and normal schools are mainly as follows. The site must be at least a furlong from any factory, marshy ground, or other places offensive to health or morals, such as burning-grounds or theatres; it should be directly exposed to the sun, and well drained. Attention must be paid to the water-supply, to the position of the well, and the drainage of its vicinity. Where school buildings are parallel to each other, the distance between them must be equal to their height. Too large a class-room tends to injure the sight and voice of the pupils*; it should be 18-24 feet in width, and 24-30 feet in length. The ceiling must be not less than 10 feet from the floor. The floor again should be two feet from the ground, and have air spaces under it. The class-room walls should be of some neutral colour. Special rooms should be provided for physics, chemistry, and natural history, with graded rows of seats, the ceiling being at least ten feet from the highest row; dark rooms should also be provided. The window surface should not be less than one-sixth of the floor area. As a rule, the light should be on the left of the pupils; it must never be in front. A class-room should have two entrances, the corridor being at least 6 feet wide, and adapted for ventilation and light. A sick-room should be provided, if possible in a separate building. Desks and seats may be single or double, but should be adapted to the height of pupils according to a regular scale.

* Nothing is said of the teacher.

The dark room required above is formed by supplying the science lecture-room with dark curtains or shutters, so that the room can be promptly darkened for experimental purposes. The science teachers are generally treated very liberally in the matter of space; for physical, chemical, and natural science there will be separate class-rooms, rooms for specimens, rooms for preparing objects, and so on. Besides the class-rooms there is always a large central hall, available for addresses on moral subjects, singing lessons, and other purposes; at one end the imperial portrait is veiled from the profane gaze, except on great occasions. There is a large waiting-room for the students, often the only place where they can warm their fingers and toes in winter; and probably a covered exercising room for use in bad weather. The open ground is expected to have an area of at least 72,000 square feet. Most country schools provide a dormitory for part at least of their pupils, though this is not thought necessary in Tokyo. The rules lay down that a study in the dormitory should give at least 324 cubic feet per head, and a bedroom 436; if the same room is used for both purposes the rate should be increased. It is seldom, if ever, that any quarters are provided for the staff, beyond those who have charge of the dormitory, or who sleep in the building as a precaution.

Equipment.

156. Equipment is a growth of time, especially as a new school begins with a first year's class only, and gradually grows into the full course of five years. Annual grants, also, are small; in one case £20 for apparatus, in another £50 for library, and £40 for science, and so on. But many of the older schools possess considerable collections of "specimens and apparatus of a chemical, physical, and biological character, besides all necessary charts and diagrams. Almost the whole of these are collected or constructed in Japan. One school has a fine collection of stuffed birds presented by a former English resident; another is forming a similar one by the labours of one of the staff. Good collections of Japanese insects may be found in many of the schools, and botanical collections exist everywhere. Then,

too, many schools are forming a geographical and historical museum; prehistoric stone implements, relics of the Ainu aboriginals, old Japanese armour, clothes, and head-dresses, and numerous historical drawings, mingle with casts of Dante's head, of the head of the Laocoon, and other contributions from the West. Black-boards are generally extensive and good. On the other hand, a deficiency almost everywhere is that of a library. Whether the education given creates in the boys any love of reading I am not prepared to say; but if it does, the school affords little chance of gratifying it. In one or two cases I came across a small library of Japanese books maintained in the dormitory, or a reading room with a supply of Japanese periodicals. But in the great majority of schools there is nothing of the kind except a small reference library for the teachers, in which the *Encyclopædia Britannica* and the *Century English Dictionary* were invariably conspicuous. One school, indeed, had a much more extensive library, including a quantity of standard English authors, but the appearance of the books was conclusive evidence that they were seldom opened. As to certain other matters of equipment, many schools provide spittoons; and the sanitary arrangements, if somewhat public according to our ideas, seem up to the ordinary Japanese standard of comfort. One or two persons, questioned on the subject, said that these places were properly attended to, and that they had never heard of any complaints connected with them. The boys themselves seem to give little trouble in this connection, whether by offensive scribblings or otherwise.

- 157. Of the cost of building and equipping a middle school an idea may be formed from one or two examples. In Yokohama, for a school with 450 boys the land cost £1,000, and the building £3,500. In a prefectural city, a school for 570 boys cost £7,000; in another, for 600 boys land (obtained cheaply) and buildings came to £6,000, and on furniture £2,000 had been spent in five years. Enquiry was also made in two small country towns. In one the school, which now has 400 boys, had cost £8,000 so far, but was unfinished, and the ground was not

Cost of buildings and equipment.

spacious enough for games. In the other case the school was designed for 350 boys; the townspeople, proud of harbouring a middle school, had presented 40,000 square yards of rice fields, the filling and raising of which had cost £1,500. The building cost £8,700, spread over two years; whilst for equipment £1,100 were spent in the first year, £1,400 in the second, and the remainder was to be spread over three more years, as the school grew to its full numbers. The public expenditure on buildings in 1902 amounted to £145,000, or 30 per cent. of the total cost of public middle schools; on furniture, books, and apparatus nearly £42,000 more were spent. The cost of repairs was 2 per cent. of the whole.

Boarding
houses.

158. The majority of middle schools make some provision for boarders, but the total number of these is not published. Enquiry was made in 23 cases, in 4 of which there was no dormitory at all, and the remaining 19 accommodated 1,298 boarders out of 9,239 boys, or about 14 per cent. The average number of boarders would be 68, but one school had 150, and two others 100. In another case the director, an old-fashioned *samurai*, boarded in his own house 20 or 30 boys, sons of his friends at a distance. Some schools exercise no supervision over the boys who live in lodgings; others require them to live only in approved houses, the student's name being inscribed on a wooden tablet over the door, after the Japanese manner. Dormitories are supervised by a few of the regular teachers, usually one at a time, in return for a small addition to their pay; even in the vacation one is required to sleep in the school each night. Food is supplied by the school-cook under the supervision of the teacher, who shares it with the boys; some schools have no complaints on this score, in others boys emphasize their protests by smashing the utensils. Rice and fish are the staple dishes, beef being sometimes provided, especially in inland schools. From 8 to 10 shillings a month are commonly charged for food, together with one or two more for room-rent, lighting, hot-water, etc. The cost of clothes and shoes is probably 50 shillings a year, most boys requiring two uniforms in European style, one for

summer, the other for winter. Most study for a while in the evening; at any rate they are required to keep quiet from 6-30 to 8-30 p. m., lights being put out at 9 or 10. In a well-ordered school, if a boy comes in later than this, he must supply a satisfactory explanation in writing, or leave. Six or eight commonly share a study or a bedroom, one of them acting as captain; but the general tone of a dormitory is democratic, and few, I think, of the supervising teachers ever become really intimate with the boys.

159. As in the primary schools, the year begins on the 1st of April, and is divided into three terms; usually, April 1st to July 10th, September 11th to December 24th, and January 8th to March 20th. Fully 200 working days are expected to be provided in the year. Important anniversaries are observed with due ceremonies by the boys and their teachers, assembled in the large hall. The school hours are commonly five or six (on Saturdays three), a frequent arrangement being to work from 8 to 12, and then from 1 to 2. In each hour, moreover, ten minutes are allowed for recess. The hours are sometimes cut down before and after the summer vacation, when the heat is great; one school, for instance, reported that the temperature was usually 90° before they broke up in July, and 96° when they returned in September. Most boys study from two to three hours at home, though set lessons are seldom prescribed, unless it be a little mathematical work three times a week, or alternately with Japanese composition.

School year
and hours.

160. The classes are arranged by years, and the number of pupils in each must not exceed 50. In practice 40 seems to be a favourite number, and even this is regarded by some as too large for effective teaching, the unsatisfactory character of much of the middle school work being attributed to this cause. Each year has its fixed work; if it is done badly, it must be done over again; and the course cannot be completed in less than the prescribed time. No teacher may teach a class in all its subjects.

School organi-
zation.

Admission. 161. Candidates for admission to the first year class must be over 12, and must have completed the second year course in a higher primary school, or possess equal attainments to be tested by examination. Those applying to be admitted into a higher class must satisfy corresponding conditions as to age and attainments. The number of applicants usually far exceeding the number of vacancies, all have to submit to an entrance examination, the percentage of successful applicants falling each year, as the following figures show :—

Year.	Applicants.	Admitted.	Percentage.
1897	31,633	21,967	69.44
1900	46,895	28,153	60.03
1903	46,570	26,622	57.16

Of these 26,622 who were admitted, over 48 per cent. had completed the fourth year of the higher primary course, over 35 the third, and only 15 per cent. came from the second year.* Thus the age of the majority of the entrants would be 13 or 14. The subjects of examination are the reading and writing of Japanese, and arithmetic. The number of vacancies is notified by the Governor to all the primary schools in his prefecture during February, and the examination is held in the various middle schools during March, no fee being charged. There are, however, a few schools which for some reason are not full, and therefore admit all applicants without ceremony.

Transfer rules. 162. There have been difficulties in Japan (as in India) over the improper migration of boys from one school to another, but on the whole the migration of teachers has given more trouble than that of students. Still, strict rules have been laid down, which all schools have to obey. A boy who wishes to leave must submit a formal application from his surety, giving adequate reasons; and if he is to join another school, the latter is furnished with particulars of his status and his last marks. One such paper which I saw, after giving the boy's marks in each subject, remarked that he had been absent from an examination, and must therefore be kept in the same class for another year.

* *Japan by the Japanese*, p. 239.

Nothing was said about conduct, though a conduct-book is kept in the school; the director stating that it was useless to ask what a boy's conduct had been, as they were so changeable, and though he had been bad there he might be good here, or *vice versa*. If he had said that the certificate would probably always have been favourable, and that therefore it was useless to ask for one at all, I should have appreciated his position better.

163. The regulations lay down that particular attention is Discipline. to be paid to discipline and morality in the class-teaching; that the discipline as well as health of boarders should be well looked after; and that in the case of day-students communication should be established between the school and the home, so that the conduct of pupils may conform to the school teaching even when they are outside it. This last is, I should say, a counsel of perfection to which not much effect is given; and even between the teachers and the boys themselves the personal intercourse is not great. Each boy has to provide a couple of sureties, resident householders who execute a bond for the observance of the rules, and who are periodically informed of the progress of the pupil. Some schools forbid their pupils to visit theatres, or to smoke within the precincts of the school. Some complain of the irregular attendance of the boys, others have comparatively few absentees, perhaps 7 per cent. in the month. The class-teachers are expected to check the roll, and to report absentees; sometimes they take it by turns to supervise the playground. In each class it is usual to appoint two "captains," who hold office for a term, or it may be a year, and act as intermediaries between the boys and their teachers. The classes also clean out their own rooms and the adjoining corridors, by turns, at the end of the day's work. Foreign teachers generally give Japanese students an excellent character for behaviour, and say that punishment is seldom required; but I had the misfortune to encounter away from their school some very unfavourable specimens of middle-school boys, who were noisy, disorderly in their conduct with the waitresses, and

absolutely untruthful in their statements about the school. The recognised punishments are (1) admonition ; (2) detention for not more than two hours a day, and for not more than seven days at a time, to afford opportunity for reflection and repentance ; (3) suspension for not less than a week and not more than a year ; (4) expulsion. The last is to be inflicted on those who show themselves incorrigibly bad or hopelessly dull, or who have been absent without valid excuse for more than a month. Officially, detention is supposed to exercise a deterrent effect ; but a distinguished student confessed that he underwent it many a time for absence without leave, and was not much affected thereby.

Strikes.

164. " Strikes " have been, and still are, a characteristic feature of Japanese middle-school life. They arise from all sorts of causes ; from impatience with an incompetent teacher, from impatience under discipline, from taking offence at trifles, sometimes from unnecessary severity on the part of authorities. Some schools have a kind of tradition of this kind, and one was encountered where the whole staff had been changed within 18 months, partly through strikes, and partly because teachers did not care to remain in such an atmosphere. Further particulars are given in chapter XVI.

Class management.

165. The Japanese student, like the Indian, has a quiet and studious manner, but it is possible that the manner is in both cases rather deceptive. Certain it is that a large number of the students whom I saw were not attentive ; some had not their books open, or not open at the right place ; others were scribbling notes to their companions, for all the world like English boys. The teaching is often of the nature of lecturing, few questions being asked ; and, as it is all in Japanese, it is difficult for a stranger to know what is really happening. Marks are given by figures, or by the equivalents of A, B, C, and reported to the parent at the end of the term, sometimes also to the primary school from which the boy comes. The details vary, but in a certain mission school the daily marks are averaged at the end of the term, and

combined with the examination mark; the average of these results combined with the annual examination mark gives the yearly mark; and no one can be promoted to the next class whose total yearly average falls below 70 per cent., or whose yearly average falls below 60 in more than two subjects, or whose yearly average in any one subject falls below 50.

166. The course of study extends over five years, and as the duller pupils are commonly eliminated in the earlier stages, those who complete the course at all usually do so in the specified time, only a small proportion taking six years, owing to sickness or failure. The number who fall away before graduation is very considerable. Thus, in 1902 there were enrolled 31,657, and there left before graduation 16,099, the causes assigned being these:—private reasons, 9,148; joined other schools, 3,013; sick, 1,981; struck off, 1,891; expelled, 66. In addition 296 died. The “private reasons” usually amount to inability to bear the expense; “many,” says the Minister, “are induced by the tendency of the times to attend, with neither resolution for study, nor means to pay.” In the same year the distribution of boys between the five classes was as follows:—first year, 29 per cent.; second, 24; third, 20; fourth, 15; and fifth, 12. The minimum age for admission is 12, but nearly half have completed the full primary course before entering, and therefore must be at least 14, hence the minimum age for completing the course will be 17, but more commonly a graduate will be 19.

Length of
course, and
age of pupils.

167. The subjects of study are morals, Japanese, Chinese classics, foreign languages (usually English only), history, geography, mathematics, natural history, physics and chemistry, drawing, and physical exercises; to which may be added law and economy, and singing. The medium of instruction is uniformly the vernacular, except so far as may be necessary in dealing with a foreign language. At the outset many of the text-books were in English, and more of the teaching was in English; the knowledge of English was consequently greater in those days, but

Curriculum.

the knowledge of other subjects less, boys simply learning the text by heart in order to answer in class. When taught in the vernacular they are said to cover the ground in one-half or one-third of the time; and foreign mission schools have had to follow the stream, the boys declaring that they could not understand the subjects when taught in English. The text-books are selected by the director of the school, with the approval of the Governor, from those authorised by the Minister; but lectures may be substituted for text-books, so long as the teacher follows the prescribed lines. The course is uniform for the whole period, there being no "bifurcation" of studies. Some think that there might be from the fourth year, when the boys are 16 or 17, for those who do not mean to go on to higher studies, but the more general opinion seems to be that all educated Japanese should have the middle school course in common, and that it is time enough to diverge at the end of it. Most teachers declare that there are too many subjects, yet cannot specify any that might be omitted, unless it be mineralogy, the elements of which might be included in the readers. The whole curriculum is directly prescribed by the Department, with the view no doubt of leading up to collegiate studies, but is hardly "dominated" by the latter. Middle school graduates have to compete for entrance to the "higher schools" (colleges) which prepare for the universities, but the latter adapt their examination to the secondary course, not *vice versa*; and so little is the middle school dominated by it, that a teacher of ten years' experience in the same town with a higher school did not even know what were the precise subjects this year for the higher school entrance examination.

Distribution
of time.

168. A specimen time-table is given in the appendix, the general distribution of weekly hours being this:—morals, 1; Japanese and Chinese, 6—7; English, 6—7; history and geography, 3; mathematics, 4; science, 2—5; drawing, 1; and drill, 3. If law and economics, or singing, are omitted, their hours are given to English, history, or drawing, making the weekly total from 28 to 30.

169. Again we may contrast the Japanese secondary curriculum with an Indian example, in parallel columns :—

Comparison
with Bombay.

Secondary course for boys.

<i>Japan</i> (5 years).	<i>Bombay</i> (middle and higher schools).
• Morals.
• Vernacular.	Vernacular (middle school).
• Chinese classics.	Second language.
• English (sometimes French or German also).	English.
History : Japanese, Chinese, Universal.	History : Indian, English
Geography : general and physical.	Geography : general and physical.
Arithmetic.	Arithmetic.
Algebra, to binomial theorem.	Algebra, to simultaneous equations.
Geometry, plane and solid.	Euclid, I—IV.
Trigonometry.
Zoology, botany, mineralogy.
Physics and chemistry.	Elementary dynamics, astronomy, and chemistry.
Drawing.	Drawing.
• Law and economics (in some).
• Singing.
• Drill, etc.

170. Between 1897 and 1902 the Educational Department laboured at the compilation of detailed courses of instruction for middle schools, in order to secure more effective and more uniform teaching. The substance of these instructions will now be given. In the first place the schools are ordered to aim at the completion of higher general education, along with good breeding. The special purpose of each subject and the interconnection of all should be kept in view. Text-books should be used, unless inappropriate to the subject, but the teacher should not be limited by them. Instruction should not begin by being minute, and end by being brief. Apparatus need not be exact, but ordinary articles may be used if convenient, or such as the teachers have made. Libraries, museums, workshops, and laboratories in the same town should be taken advantage of.

Official
instructions
as to the
course.

171. Of the course in morals particulars are given in the chapter on moral training. Some schools teach this subject by

Morals.

lectures only, but most use text-books, at least after the first year. The boys are expected to read the book first, the teacher expounding it, adding what he pleases, and asking questions; the class takes notes, and is examined at the end of the term.

Japanese and
Chinese.

172. For the vernacular course a set of ten readers is published, containing in its latter parts extracts from the older literature; for classical Chinese the books used are chiefly historical, and written in that language by Japanese authors. In the first year 5 hours are devoted to reading, one to grammar and composition, and one to penmanship. The reading lessons are a continuation of those of primary schools, plain contemporary pieces on morals, history, geography, science, or industries being utilised, as well as speeches, letters, or poems by well-known persons; maxims and poems are committed to memory, and provincial mispronunciation corrected. Composition includes dictation, modernising of the old language, transcription from the written language to the spoken, letter-writing and narrative. The programme of the second year is similar. In the third year prose literature of the middle and modern periods and poetry are prescribed; and for Chinese the reading of essays. In the fourth year penmanship is dropped; and the modern and classical languages, as well as Japanese and Chinese themselves, are compared, special attention being paid to rhetoric. In the fifth year etymology and the history of the language are introduced under grammar; and in the last term three hours are devoted to the history of Japanese literature, two to reading, and one to grammar and composition.

English.

173. English is begun by most boys in the middle school, comparatively few primary schools including it in their course. For the first year pronunciation, spelling, reading, translation, conversation, dictation and penmanship are prescribed. Second year: reading, translation, conversation, composition and dictation; plain English of the second or third grade of Longman's Standard Readers being employed. Third year: the same, of the third or fourth Reader grade, with grammar and analysis. Fourth year: reading, translation and dictation of the fourth

Reader grade, conversation and composition of simple narrative and letters, grammar. Fifth year : reading, translation, and dictation, of the fifth or sixth Reader grade ; presumably also conversation and composition, though my translator omitted them. Amongst books found in use were Nesfield's English Grammar series, book ii, (third year); Nesfield's Idiom and Grammar for middle schools, and Franklin's Autobiography (fourth year); Swinton's Seven British Classics, and Irving's Sketchbook (fifth year); English Language Primers by a Japanese; and Standard Choice Readers, compiled by Japanese from various English Readers, with rough illustrations. More translation is done than composition; for "conversation" proper the classes are generally too large, so that some teachers dictate a passage, and make the boys read it with proper attention to pronunciation and emphasis. A fourth-year student, who was doing eleven hours of English a week but could only talk through the interpreter, furnished the following particulars of his books :— (1) Standard Choice Reader, No. 5. The class read the text aloud, and translated it into Japanese, the translation being prepared at home; for examination the teacher set unseen passages. (2) Practical English Lessons, by H. Saito, containing "conversation" to be learned by heart, once a week or once a fortnight. (3) Text-book of English Composition, by the same, containing Japanese pieces to be turned into English. (4) Higher English Grammar, by Naibu Kanda. (5) English Selections for Elocution, to be read and translated, containing, *e. g.*, Bruce and the Spider, pieces from Carlyle, Bacon's Essay on Studies, Antony's speech over Cæsar, etc. This boy had gone so far as to buy a "Story of Cæsar" by M. Clarke, edited by a Japanese, for private reading.

•• The general subject of the teaching of English is referred to elsewhere. Here it is sufficient to say that the results are generally admitted to be hardly commensurate with the time and labour expended; few middle school boys can write an intelligible piece of English, fewer still can speak it at all. The great

increase in middle schools has not been accompanied by an increase in the number of competent teachers of English,* and comparatively few can secure the services of foreigners; 257 schools have only 32 foreign teachers between them.

Of other foreign languages, German is studied by three classes (140 boys) under a Japanese, in Tokyo first middle school; and there are also French mission schools where French is taught in the regular course, and English in extra hours.

History.

174. The history studied is of three kinds. (1) Japanese history. First year: the ancient and middle periods. Second year: the same continued to the present time. Fifth year: especially noteworthy events in the history of Japan. (2) Oriental history. Third year: history of China. (3) Western history. Fourth year (twice a week): from ancient times to the independence of the United States. Fifth year (once a week): from the French Revolution to the present time.

For this general history there is a brief but comprehensive text-book, provided with rough pictures and some maps; the leading names are given in English with the Japanese pronunciation at the top of each (page where the Japanese puts his foot-notes), and thus it is possible to glean an idea of the ground covered by the book. Beginning with the pyramids and the sphinx, ancient Assyria and the days of Abraham, the book sweeps over Persia, Greece, Rome, the barbarians, the middle ages, Charlemagne, and the Normans. Then comes English history (Magna Charta, etc.), followed by the religious wars of Germany, Italian painters, German philosophers, English writers and men of science, Queen Elizabeth, the Hanoverians, the United States, the French Revolution, Napoleon, the Reform Act, the Crimean War, the Russo-Turkish War, Queen Victoria, Disraeli, Gladstone, the conquest of India, the Afghan Wars, the advance of Russia in Asia, etc. The foreign names are often grossly misspelt, and the pronunciation of classical words is extremely confused, the Japanese syllabary being naturally unable to represent

* *Japan by the Japanese*, p. 245

foreign words accurately. A boy informed me that in one term his class had travelled from the dawn of history to the death of Julius Cæsar; that they were expected to prepare the subject in advance, the teacher asking questions, and dictating additional notes, which were also learned; and that he found it extremely difficult to remember so many names and details. For the lessons in Japanese history schools have pictures of historical characters, old dresses and customs, etc.; sometimes also a small museum of illustrative objects.

175. The subject of geography is thus divided. First year: Geography. introduction, Japan, Asia. Second year: Asia and Oceania. Third year: Europe. Fourth year: Africa and America. Fifth year: physical geography. A mission school visited disposed of the ordinary geography in three years; the fourth was devoted to the solar system, the structure of the earth, meteorology, organic life, and palæontology; and the fifth to descriptive astronomy. A university student stated that in his day the subject was taught very mechanically, lists of places, etc., being simply learned so as to point them out on a wall map or blank map.

176. *Mathematics.* (1) Arithmetic. First year, 4 hours: Mathematics. the four fundamental operations; Japanese, foreign, and metric weights and measures; Japanese and foreign money; fractions, ratio, and proportion. Second year, 2 hours: percentage, profit and loss, commission and brokerage, interest and discount, taxes, banking, exchange, stocks; square and cube root, progression, and mensuration.

(2) Algebra. Second year, 2 hours: four fundamental operations, simple equations. Third year, 2 hours: from simultaneous equations of the first degree to irrational functions. Fourth year, 2 hours: indices, ratio and proportion, combination and permutation, binomial theorem, logarithms.

(3) Geometry. Third year, 2 hours: introduction, straight lines, triangles, parallelograms, circles. Fourth year, 2 hours: equality of areas, ratio and proportion, similar figures, loci, and problems. Fifth year, 2 hours: solid geometry, concluding

with mensuration of surfaces and volumes of prisms, pyramids, cylinders, cones, and spheres.

(4) Trigonometry. Fifth year, 2 hours : the elements, including the use of logarithms and trigonometrical tables.

Geometry, it will be seen, is treated after a modern fashion, and Euclid has never, I believe, been a text-book in Japan ; at first American text-books were used, and now books by Japanese professors.

Science.

177. *Science*. (1) Natural History. First year : mineralogy. Second year : description, classification, and physiology of plants. Third year : physiology and hygiene. Fourth year : description, classification, and physiology of animals. This order is not adhered to by every school, and some would be glad to dispense with the mineralogy at any rate. Both space and materials for science teaching are usually provided on a liberal scale ; most teachers take their classes out for the collection of specimens, and it is evident that many of them are keen upon their work, and are specialists in some branch or other of it. It is equally evident, I should say, that others are content with routine work. Mr. Hearn speaks enthusiastically of the quality of the teaching even in a remote provincial school.

" It is no small surprise to observe how botany, geology, and other sciences are taught even in this remotest part. Plant physiology and the nature of vegetable tissues are studied under excellent microscopes, and in their relations to chemistry ; and at regular intervals the instructor leads his classes into the country. . . . Each series of lessons in geology is supplemented by visits to the mountains about the lake, or to the tremendous cliffs of the coast The country is studied physiographically after the plan laid down in Huxley's manual. Natural history, too, is taught according to the latest and best methods, and with the help of the microscope. The results of such teaching are sometimes surprising. I know of one boy of 16 who voluntarily collected and classified more than 200 varieties of marine plants for a Tokyo professor. Another, a youth of 17, wrote down for me, almost without omission or error, a scientific list of all the butterflies to be found in the neighbourhood " *

(2) Physics and chemistry. Fourth year : non-metallic and metallic combinations, analysis, and the elements of organic

* *Glances of Unfamiliar Japan*, p. 443.

chemistry. Fifth year: dynamics, sound, heat, light, magnetism, electricity.

In this department also the provision is usually liberal, and cases full of apparatus, down to phonograph records, may be seen in every school. These two subjects, however, are found very dry by a number of the students. The fourth-year class of a certain school, supposed to have been doing chemistry since April, were at the end of August still marking time, the text-books not having as yet arrived.

178. *Law and political economy.* The barest outlines of ^{Other} these two subjects are taught in some schools for two hours ^{subjects.} weekly in the last year.

Drawing, one hour weekly for four years. The following is the programme of a mission school. First year: freehand, copying from models, sketching. Second year: mechanical drawing. Third year: mechanical drawing, designing, and projective drawing. Fourth year: drawing of geometrical figures, water-colour painting. A bird's wing, mounted in a holder, is the usual eraser.

Singing. The elements of the theory are explained, pupils are drilled in the scale, and English as well as Japanese songs are taught.

179. A middle school is allowed to open a supplementary ^{Supplement-} course of not more than a year. According to the rules, only ^{ary course,} graduates are admissible, but others who have failed in their examination and are ashamed to continue in their old class take advantage of it. Less than one-tenth of the schools, however, have such a class. The middle school year ending in March, whilst the higher school year begins in September, a graduate of the former has some months to pass before he can appear for the higher entrance examination, and such graduates frequently return to their schools to keep their work up until the examination in July, but these apparently do not count as a supplementary class.

180. Besides the compulsory military drill and exercises, ^{Physical} all middle school boys have to practise either fencing or *judo*, ^{training.}

further particulars of which are given in the chapter on physical training. In addition, all schools have an association for games, etc., analogous to the Indian gymkhana. Occasionally some form of exercise under this head is compulsory ; more usually, while all belong to the association, games are voluntary. The association may include a debating society and school magazine, and provides for some or all of the following :—baseball, tennis, boating, swimming, archery, and even skating (in the north). The teachers also belong ; and the common practice is to pay from 1 penny to 2½ pence a month for each department patronised, some schools levying a further tax of 2½ pence a month for the annual excursion. As for inter-school competitions, the practice varies in different prefectures ; some have none, in others the middle schools have met once or twice in the last five years for combined sports ; a boat-race is perhaps the commonest form of competition. Most schools have their own sports at least once a year, often on some national holiday. Excursions are of frequent occurrence, usually in the form of long walks, but sometimes utilised for military purposes. The senior boys may be out for a week at a time, boarding in inns, unless among the mountains where they lodge in houses or temples, and cook for themselves. The cost of such trips falls on the students themselves and the teachers who accompany them.

Extraneous
lectures, etc.

181. Few schools have any outside lectures or entertainments ; none that I came across ever had a lantern-lecture. Should a stranger visit the school he will probably be asked to address the boys ; but it is useless to do so in any language but Japanese, and unless he has a very efficient interpreter he will do well to refrain.

Examinations.

182. The rules lay down that, in judging whether a student shall be promoted or graduated, both daily work and the results of examinations shall be taken into account. Both terminal and annual examinations are held, though they may be dispensed with in the case of Japanese, foreign languages, mathematics, drawing, singing, and gymnastics. Those who

for valid reasons fail to appear at the examination may be specially examined, or passed on their general work. In practice much diversity prevails. Some have regular examinations each term with due notice to the students; others have them at irregular intervals without notice, so that the boys have to keep themselves on a level with their work; others are following the example of the primary schools in abolishing them altogether. The following details of different schools will show the diversity of practice and results:—

- (1) Daily marks and examinations. All the graduating class were successful; of the rest about 15 per cent. detained.
- (2) Results determined by three examinations in the year. The graduating class of 130 all passed; 99 per cent. complete the course in 5 years.
- (3) Fifty are graduated each year; no failures.
- (4) About 80 graduate each year, one perhaps failing.
- (5) From 70 to 90 graduate; 6 or 7 fail.
- (6) Results determined by daily marks, averaged every two or three months, a student being expected to get 60 per cent.
- (7) Three terminal examinations, unnotified examinations, and daily marks, the ratio of the results being left to the teacher; 52 graduated this time, 8 failed.
- (8) Daily marks; no regular examinations, but the teacher can hold one if he likes; 32 graduated, 2 failed.
- (9) Three written examinations, that in July lasting for five days, and from 2 to 3 hours a day; an average of 60 per cent. required. From 70 to 90 graduate, 2 perhaps failing.
- (10) Examination for two hours daily for nine days: 59 graduated, 2 failed.

Everywhere an average of 60 per cent. is the usual standard, 50 per cent. in one subject being condoned; but, on the whole, it may be inferred that Japanese teachers are easy-going in the matter of marks. The results are entirely in their hands, except that an inspector checks the examinations of those private schools, the graduates of which are entitled to be licensed as secondary teachers. Few, if any, schools award any prizes.

183. The pupils and graduates of recognised middle schools enjoy certain privileges. The pupils are allowed to postpone their military service till the age of 21, and the graduates may volunteer for one year's service instead of three. Further, the graduates are qualified for admission into special, technical, or higher schools; they are entitled to special treatment at the

Privileges of students.

examination for elementary teachers, or in some cases may be licensed without examination; and they are qualified to become common civil officials.

What
becomes of
the graduates.

184. In 1891 there graduated from middle schools 722 students, of whom 51 per cent. passed on to other schools, and 28 per cent. found employment within a year; and every year, of course, a considerable number pass into the army or navy for their term of service. For the public school graduates of 1901 the following details are given, showing that only 39 per cent. passed on to other schools, and 20 per cent. found employment; but the proportion of those "unemployed or unknown" is unusually large:—

Passed on to higher schools, 848; to special or technical schools, 1,720; army and navy, 476; teachers, 569; Government service, 143; private business, 600; died, 28; unemployed or unknown, 2,172. Total, 6,556.

It was interesting to find in one school alone four boys, sons of farmers, who were about to proceed to America to study farming.

School
hygiene.

185. All the public middle schools have school doctors. In one place the doctor comes once a week for £1 monthly; in another three or four times a week; in another, fortnightly for £4 a year; in another 8 or 9 times a year (supposed to be monthly) for £1 a month, and so on. The general opinion seemed to be that though there was still too much work in the schools, it was easier than it had been some years ago, and could hardly be called excessive for strong boys; that none were actually made ill by it; and that the general health was improving, except for an increase of eye-weakness. The number of middle-school boys medically examined in 1902 was nearly 84,000, of whom 48 per cent. were classed as strong in constitution, and 45 per cent. as medium, leaving a very small percentage of weaklings; as for the eyes, 88 per cent. were normal in both.

Private
schools.

186. There are several excellent secondary schools controlled by missions which are referred to further in the chapter

on private schools; those that are recognised by Government have to conform to the public curriculum. Things were at one time more difficult for private schools, not so much from hostility to the missions, as because some of the Japanese schools were inefficient; and there have been complaints of the public schools trying to undercut and damage the private ones; but at the present time relations seem more amicable, and those private institutions which have proved their efficiency have no ground for complaint.

187. The average number of teachers in a middle school is Teachers 18, the average number of pupils per teacher 20. In public schools 57 per cent., and in private schools 50 per cent., of the staff are regular teachers, and the remainder assistants; in the former one teacher in 186, and in the latter one in 67 are foreigners. The annual reports in former years published details which are no longer included. Thus, in 1897, in middle schools 71 per cent. of the teachers had less than five years' service, and only 3 per cent. over 15; of the directors 56 per cent. had less than 5 years' service, and less than 5 per cent. had more than 15. Facts like these may throw some light on the insubordination of some Japanese schools.

188. For the post of director no qualifications are specified Teachers' by regulation, "that there may be wide latitude in the selection qualifications. of an able and learned man." He is usually selected by the local Governor, with the approval of the Department, and has commonly been a middle school teacher himself. Few of them take any active part in the teaching, unless in the subject of morals. The teachers are practically appointed by the director, with the approval of the Governor, though the Department occasionally sends down a man. Strictly speaking, they should possess a license from the Minister of State; but owing to the rapid extension of middle schools in the last few years, this rule cannot at present be enforced, and two-thirds of the teachers in any one school may be uncertificated. As a matter of fact, more than half possess certificates. Particulars as to the licensing of secondary teachers are given in the chapter

on teachers. As to the proportion who have been specially trained for their work, no details are forthcoming. Considerable dissatisfaction, however, is expressed with the general results of the middle schools, and many of the defects are traced to the want of sufficient competent teachers, especially in English and science. It is stated that out of 4,000 teachers only 300 are university graduates,* and at présent the graduates in literature and science are comparatively few, and are falling off in quality, for reasons indicated elsewhere. The trained men from the higher normal school are considered to make better teachers than university graduates, but the number turned out is limited, and most are taken up by the normal schools. Many of those who pass the State test are licensed for penmanship and other minor subjects; the number of those qualified in English or science is small, and we find graduates of agricultural colleges engaged as teachers of English. It is feared, too, that the special training institutes, with poor material and an abbreviated course, will not do much to improve matters.

Teachers' work.

189. A few questions as to the number of hours expected from a teacher elicited such answers as these:—from 10 to 16 hours a week, with playground supervision on two days in a month; 18 hours; 15 or 16 hours, 21 being the maximum, and no supervision; 18 or 19 hours, 22 being the maximum. Some of the staff are selected to supervise the dormitory, for which they receive extra pay; and a teacher occasionally gives private tuition to a promising boy.

Migrations of teachers.

190. The multiplication of normal and secondary schools within a few years tempted teachers to roam from place to place in search of higher pay; and in some schools the average length of service has been only from two to four years. The Department interfered in order to limit this practice, and the recent rise of technical institutions has somewhat checked

* *Japan by the Japanese*, pp. 238, 240.

the growth of middle schools. As it is, the teachers in any particular school are likely to hail from all parts of Japan.

191. There are two scales of pay, according as the officials are of *Sonin* rank (appointed by the Premier), or *Hannin* (appointed by the head of the Department). In the case of *Sonin*, directors of schools are divided into 13 grades, rising from £60 to £200 yearly; instructors into 14 grades, rising from £40 to £180. In the case of *Hannin*, directors and instructors are divided into 11 grades, rising from £2 10s. to £7 10s. a month; assistant instructors and dormitory superintendents into 9 grades, rising from 30 shillings to £5 a month; whilst there are 11 grades of clerks, rising from 24 shillings to £5. When an official is appointed for the first time, or reappointed after more than a year's interval, there is no limitation as to the grade of salary to be allowed; but when this is once fixed, no promotion can be given until after one year of service. If a teacher is appointed within a year after resigning another post, his pay must not be higher than that which he last received, a rule intended to check migration. The salary may be reduced, if the number of hours is lessened. If a teacher falls sick, he can draw full pay for 30 days, and after that half-pay for 60 days more. What the average pay of a teacher may be, it is difficult to say; but for 1902 the salaries of directors are entered as £20,478; if we deduct branch schools there would be 200 directors, and the average salary would be £102. In the same year £122,101 were paid to teachers and assistant teachers, and £62,512 to "other teachers." Combining these, and dividing by 3,919, given as the total number of teachers (including foreigners), we get £47 as the average yearly salary. In addition £3,159 were paid to superintendents of dormitories. In one school visited the Japanese teachers were receiving from £3 to £6 a month, in another from £2 6s. to £7 10s. Tokyo salaries are said to be comparatively low, because so many would prefer to remain there. Foreigners, on the other hand, are paid at higher rates; one was receiving £10 a month, another (a lady) £7 a month

for 12 weekly hours, another £5 a month for 9 weekly hours, another £7 10s. a month from each of two schools for 10 hours weekly in each.

Teachers'
pensions.

192. The rules for pensions and gratuities are similar to those described under primary schools, except that one per cent. of the salary is deducted as a contribution. In 1902 local bodies paid in £1,475 on this account, and the officials of public middle schools £1,522; on the other hand, £393 were granted as pensions to 22 persons (an average of £18 each), besides 3 family pensions, 16 bonuses, and 146 gratuities.

Finance.

193. In 1902 the total expenditure of local bodies on public middle schools amounted to £474,000, showing an average annual cost of £2,145 per school, or £6 per pupil; ten years earlier each school had cost only £740, each pupil £2 7s. The expenditure of private schools at that date averaged £1 5s. per pupil, but for more recent times details are not available. The whole amount was 10·6 per cent. of the local expenditure on education, and 9 per cent. of the total public expenditure on education, as roughly estimated. The principal items of expenditure were:—salaries, 50·3 per cent.; buildings, 30·6; furniture, books, and apparatus, 8·8; articles of consumption, 2·4; repairs, 2; travelling expenses, 1·8; rent, 0·2; miscellaneous, 3·9. On the other side, the sources of expenditure were the following:—local taxes, 76·7; fees, 21·4, donations, 1·1; from school property, 0·3; miscellaneous, 0·5. Stock funds may be created for these schools, as explained under primary schools, but those which exist at present are very small, and few schools have anything like a reserve fund.

Fees.

194. The fees in public schools are fixed by the local Governor, subject to the approval of the Minister, to whom the fees of private schools are also submitted. The tuition-fee in a public school is from 2 to 4 shillings a month; the Government school in Tokyo charges 5; private schools go as high as 6, and also often exact entrance and examination fees. A reduction is sometimes made in favour of soldiers' sons; and

outsiders are charged more than townfolk. There are no scholarships, but the best pupils in each year are sometimes excused the tuition-fee. For the whole country the average fee in a public school amounts to 25·6 shillings for the year.

• 195. Following are a few specific examples of the annual cost of particular schools in different parts of the country :— Cost of particular schools

• *Tokyo*—

800 boys, 38 teachers, annual cost, £2,800.

Prefectural cities—

600 boys, 24 teachers, cost, £2,000.

• 450 " 23 " " £1,800.

• 360 " 20 " " £1,200.

Country town—

400 boys, 19 teachers, cost, £1,400.

Chapter VI.—HIGHER SCHOOLS.

196. Between the secondary school and the university is History. interposed the higher school, preparatory to the latter, but comparable in respect of the age and attainments of the pupils to the Arts Colleges of India. The oldest of these institutions began as an English language school at Tokyo in 1875, but soon became a University Preparatory school, with a course of four years leading up to the departments of law, science, and literature. The need of such a preparatory course arose out of the fact that foreign languages were employed at the university by many of the professors and in many of the text-books, and therefore the students required a preliminary training in languages better than that afforded by the middle school. With the increase of candidates more facilities became necessary, and in 1886 the middle schools were divided into two grades, ordinary and higher, seven of the latter being organised. In 1894 these higher middle schools became higher schools simply. At one time it was intended that instruction in special branches of knowledge, such as medicine, law, and engineering, sufficient for the ordinary practice of those professions, should be a feature of these schools, along with preparatory courses for those intending to enter the university.

But the preparatory courses completely overshadowed the rest; they held, for instance, in 1897 nearly 2,700 students, against 1,500 students of medicine, 160 of engineering, and 40 of law. Hence the law department has been abolished, only one school retains an engineering branch, and the medical departments have been reconstituted on an independent basis, as Special Schools of Medicine; and thus, with one small exception (the engineering department having only 180 students), the higher schools, with their 4,600 pupils, have become purely preparatory to the universities. In 1900 the curriculum was revised, the number of subjects being reduced and the hours allotted to each increased, in order to secure more adequate study, especially of foreign languages. Upon this the students spend from 40 to 60 per cent. of their time; yet "their knowledge is unsatisfactory, and decreases from year to year."* The main cause of this is said to be the pooriness of the teaching of English in the middle schools, so that the men practically have to learn two foreign languages simultaneously in the higher schools. But it may also be remarked that they have no great incentive to work in the higher school, as the majority are safe to pass from it in due course into the colleges of the universities, which seldom impose any entrance test. Whatever the cause, it is admitted that the quality of the men sent up to the colleges has disappointed expectations; and the future of the higher schools has been the subject of much discussion, the last three years having witnessed proposals to lengthen their course, to turn them into universities, to abolish them.

197. There are at present eight higher schools, known by numbers with the exception of the Yamaguchi school, which however is in process of extinction. It derived its main support from a fund raised by the province, to which the former Daimyo of Choshu was the chief contributor, and which produced about £2,500 a year, Government adding another

Establishment
and maintenance

* *Japan by the Japanese*, p. 245.

£1,500. But the resources of the school are not sufficient; the educational society which manages the fund has decided to withdraw; and even if the Department were disposed to take the school over, the war has rendered it impossible to obtain the necessary appropriation. The Choshu clan shares with that of Satsuma the leading position in Japan, and the former Daimyo of Satsuma has also been closely associated with the local higher school, that of Kagoshima. This originated in a military training school (Zoshikwan) founded by a prince of Satsuma more than two centuries ago, since the new era it has passed through a series of vicissitudes as a middle or higher school, but has recently been reorganised as the seventh higher school, retaining its traditional title of Zoshikwan. The present representative of the princes of Satsuma gave the money for new buildings, and to support the school for four years, after which it is to be taken over by the Department. The remaining six schools are entirely supported by Government.

• 198. The eight schools in 1903 had 4,781 students, or an ^{size} average strength of 600; but that at Tokyo had over 1,000, and that at Kagoshima only 300. The average number of teachers at each was 37, or one for every 16 students, Tokyo having 54, and Kagoshima 21. The number of students in a class probably seldom exceeds 40.

199. The buildings are of the usual plain type, mostly two-^{Buildings and} storied and wooden, though brick structures are also found; ^{equipment} but there are plenty of them, the schools being abundantly provided with scientific class and specimen rooms, and laboratories, as well as the ordinary lecture rooms. Some have capital libraries, especially the two oldest, those of Tokyo and Sendai. Students cannot take books away, but are provided with a reading-room adjoining the library, which at Tokyo is open from 9 a.m. to 9 p.m., and at Sendai till 5 or 6 p.m. The electric light is fitted at Tokyo, the school having its own plant for that purpose, as also for heating the buildings by steam in the winter. Besides the ordinary books numerous copies of class-books are provided, which may be lent to students. The Tokyo school is allowed £250 a year for the

library, the Sendai school £200. The new buildings at Kagoshima have cost £9,000, independently of the furniture, which came from the old school; the scientific department here is interesting for its botanical and zoological collections, gathered not only from the district, but also from the Luchu Islands to the south of Japan.

Boarding
houses

200. "Intellectual culture," says an official publication, "is not all that is looked for from these institutions. As their students are about 20 years old, an age well fitted for the cultivation of the moral character, they are placed under strict supervision and careful protection. To this end all the higher schools are provided with dormitories, and careful attention is given to instruction in gymnastics, with uniform good results in the matter of students' health, conduct, and scholastic attainments." The dormitory accommodation, however, is by no means complete. At Tokyo there was formerly room for 600 out of 1,000, now reduced to 300 by a fire; accordingly the first-year men reside in the quarters, the rest submitting their addresses to the superintendent. At Sendai the dormitory has recently been converted into class rooms, but the students' lodgings are supervised by four of the staff. At Yamaguchi the quarters accommodated about 120 out of 500; one of the professors was in charge, drawing no pay for the duty, but having fewer hours of teaching. At Kagoshima 124 reside out of 530, and at Kumamoto 350 out of 700. In the last case there is no superintendent of the dormitory, which is managed by the students themselves; they arrange the daily *menu*, and hire kitchen-boys, there being no regular cook. This system is found economical, and a student living in the dormitory spends only 24-26 shillings a month. The addresses of those who lodge outside are ascertained from time to time, and they are not permitted to continue in any doubtful neighbourhood. In all these dormitories six or seven students share each room, whether for sleep or for study, the bed-rooms being furnished with wooden cots, and generally hung round with rifles and other warlike equipment. Students have been known to beg to be allowed to reside outside on account of the noise made by

their companions ; but at Kumamoto, at least, there are times set apart for study, when all must be quiet, and these times are believed by the authorities to be observed. *Esprit-de-corps* is strong in all of the schools, but perhaps especially so at Kumamoto, where the seniors make a point of looking after the juniors, and where the so-called "Kyushu tone" is still so much thought of as to attract the sons of Tokyo and Kyoto families.

201. The school year begins on September 11, and is divided into the usual three terms, with a vacation of two months in summer, and two short ones about the New Year and the beginning of April respectively. A leading educational journal recently came out with a proposal to abolish the summer vacation ; while permitting a short one to primary and middle schools, it would have two or three lectures daily throughout the summer in all higher institutions, to keep the students from contracting idle habits ; and as the Government schools are not likely to be in a hurry to make the change, it was suggested that private schools should set the example, and thereby increase their numbers. The proposal is not likely to be received with enthusiasm by those who think that Japan already suffers from the plague of lectures almost as badly as India. The daily hours at the Tokyo higher school are from 8 to 12, and from 12-30 to 2-30, ten minutes' recess being also allowed in each hour.

202. Candidates for admission must have graduated from a middle school, and be at least 17 ; in practice they are generally 18 or 19. Moreover, in consequence of the increasing number of applicants a competitive entrance examination has for some years been necessary, the results being as shown below :—

Year.				Applicants	Admitted	Percentage.
1896	2,159	1,210	56
1898	2,189	1,111	50
1900	3,931	1,491	37
1901	5,952	1,702	33
1902	4,574	1,646	36

In some ways this is the most critical examination in a student's career, since on it practically depends the question whether he shall enter the Imperial University or not ; for most of those who enter the higher schools are fairly certain to pass on in due course, and it thus practically takes the place of our matriculation examination. Of those who fail, here many turn aside to other lines of study in special or technical schools ; some try their fortune again the next year, and some are said to take to dissipation through disappointment. Hence it is argued that there ought to be more higher schools, since failure drives men to the bad, or at least delays their entering the university, and so prolongs their academic career unduly ; moreover, the competition for entrance leads to overwork in the middle schools during the last year, and especially during the interval before the entrance examination. Quantity rather than quality, however, seems to be the conception underlying some of these demands for a multiplication of facilities ; and in connection with the abolition of the Yamaguchi higher school one of the newspapers plainly said that the general public seemed to think the supply of higher schools in excess of the requirements of the country, and that the school would not be missed.

The entrance
examination

203. This entrance examination, for which a fee of 8 shillings is charged, used to be held by each school independently, with the result that some attracted far more candidates than others, and thus fairly good candidates might be rejected in one place, whilst elsewhere the school had to make up its numbers by admitting inferior students. Since 1902, therefore, the examination has been held simultaneously at all the higher schools, the questions being sent to them by a committee (mostly of professors of the schools) sitting at Tokyo, which also examines the answers. The subjects vary slightly from year to year, but always include Japanese, Chinese, English, and mathematics. They are announced in April or May, and the examination takes place in July. Neither the universities nor the higher schools have definite "spheres of influence," but candidates send in their applications through, and are

examined at, the nearest school, whatever their ultimate intentions may be. The application has to be accompanied by a *curriculum vitae* and a photograph; and each declares the college which he wishes to join ultimately, as well as the order of his preference amongst the higher schools. Those who pass highest are forthwith allotted to the schools of their choice; but when a school is filled up, any further candidates must go to the school of their second choice, and so on. Each is then assigned to the section corresponding to the college he proposes to enter. It has been objected to this arrangement that it compels a young man to select his profession at the time of his leaving school, when perhaps he has not the necessary knowledge to enable him to do so wisely; but so far as the mere filling of the higher schools is concerned the system seems to work satisfactorily. It may be of interest to add that of the 1,600 successful candidates of 1903, eight belonged to the nobility, 34 per cent. came from the gentry (the former *samurai*), and over 65 per cent. were commoners, showing how the latter have overtaken the former privileged and literary class*. In the previous year 72 per cent. came from public middle schools, and the remainder from private ones, except 24 candidates who qualified by special examination.

204. I was able to obtain copies of the papers set at the examination of July 1904, and have had them translated from Japanese; in addition to those given here there were papers in the Japanese and Chinese languages. It must be remembered that only one-third of the candidates could be admitted.

ENGLISH.

Translation (A).

Translate into Japanese —

(1) It is hard to know flatterers from friends; for as a wolf resembles a dog, so a flatterer a friend.

(2) He was more desirous to be virtuous, than appear so, so that the less he courted fame, the more it followed him.

(3) She thought her family should all retire to the country for the summer, that the children might have the benefit of the mountain air, for there was no living in the city this sultry season.

* *Japan by the Japanese*, p. 24.

Translation (B).

- (4) There is nothing so strong but it is in danger from what is weak.
 (5) It must be an industrious youth that provides against age; and he that fools away the one must either beg or starve in the other.
 (6) Of the present state, whatever it be, we feel and are forced to confess the misery; yet when the same state is at a distance, imagination paints it as desirable.

Grammar.

- (1) Correct the mistakes, if any, in the following sentences:—
 (a) I have heard him to say so.
 (b) They asked a question of him.
 (c) It is you that is mistaken, not me.
 (d) He is reported to be killed in the late war.
 (2) Change (a) into the direct form of narration, and (b) into the indirect form:—
 (a) My father told me not to tell a lie.
 (b) He said to me, "Have you ever been in America?"

PHYSICS.

1. Explain the physical phenomena which cause the intensity, pitch, and timbre of a musical sound.
2. If the length of a rod at the temperature 0° C. is l_0 , and its co-efficient of expansion is λ ; find the equation to determine the length l at a temperature of t° C.
3. Explain, with a diagram, why we cannot see our whole body in a small plane mirror, whilst we can see the whole of such large bodies as houses, trees, etc.
4. The construction of Bunten and Daniell Batteries, and the position of their positive and negative poles.

HISTORY.

1. The reforms of the Taikwa era.
2. How was the partition of Poland brought about?
3. Write about—
 (a) Toho [a Chinese poet].
 (b) Francis Xavier.
 (c) Disraeli
4. What do you know about—
 (a) The Invincible Armada?
 (b) The Aigun Treaty [Chinese history]?

ZOOLOGY.

1. An account of the tapeworm.
2. Draw the skeleton of a bird's wing, and shew how it differs from other animals.
3. Why is a whale not a fish?
4. The various classes of insects, and two examples of each.

GEOMETRY.

1. If there are two points A, B , on one side of a given straight line, find a point C on the line such that the angle ACB is the largest possible.
2. Prove that the straight line drawn from a point at the top of a regular prism to the intersecting point of three middle lines on the base is three times as long as the perpendicular drawn from that intersecting point to a face.

TRIGONOMETRY.

1. Solve the following expression :—

$$\sin 100^\circ \sin (-160^\circ) + \cos 200^\circ \cos (-280^\circ).$$
2. When, in the triangle ABC , $\cot \frac{A}{2}, \cot \frac{B}{2}, \cot \frac{C}{2}$ are in arithmetical progression, solve the following equation :—

$$\cot \frac{A}{2} \cot \frac{C}{2} = 3.$$

ARITHMETIC.

1. How many square *ken* are there in 3,428 *cha*, 2 *tan*, 8 *sei*, 9 *bu*?
2. One man of class A can accomplish a certain piece of work in 60 days, and one of class B in 80 days; if 3 men of class A and 5 of class B work for 8 days, has the job been finished or not? If not, how many days are required to finish it?

ALGEBRA.

1. Solve the equation—

$$\sqrt{3ax-x^2} - \sqrt{x^2-3bx} = \sqrt{3} \sqrt{(a-b)x}.$$

2. How many ways are there of putting 12 men into two six-oared boats?

A mathematical friend, asked to compare these papers with Bombay standards, replied that the arithmetic would be very easy for a Matriculation paper, whilst the others depended essentially on the text-books used. Of the algebra questions one would be easy, the other hard for the Previous class; the same might be said of the trigonometry for the Intermediate class; the first question in geometry is a well-known rider which might be set for the Matriculation or Previous examinations; the other question is outside our course altogether.

205. Discipline may vary somewhat from school to school, Discipline, but on the whole is tolerably strict; there is a good deal of military drill and of field-exercises, and many of the students are practically young soldiers. On the other hand, those at least who live in lodgings are exposed to various temptations, and a foreign teacher remarked that he often failed to recognise students whom he had taught in former years, so heavy had

they grown in mind and body, from drink and bad company. In class the roll is called at every lecture. Any difference between a teacher and a student is referred to the director for settlement; but if the latter is not satisfactory to public opinion, a strike may occur. Students are expected to wear a prescribed uniform and cap. When they absent themselves they must produce within five days a written explanation from their surety or from the superintendent of the dormitory, accompanied by a medical certificate in the case of prolonged absence. Punishments are three in number: censure, suspension, or expulsion. Those who are extremely backward or irregular, who have been suspended twice for a year, or have failed twice in the same examination, or who have not paid their fees within three weeks of the proper time, are struck off the roll.

Course of
study.

206. The course of study extends over three years, and is divided into three sections. Students preparing for the colleges of law or literature take the first section; the second leads up to the colleges of science, engineering, and agriculture; whilst the third is devoted to medical students. The changes of 1900 reduced the time devoted to certain subjects by each section, in order that more time might be given to others; but it is held by some that there is still too much work, especially as regards the learning of two foreign languages simultaneously; and that with enough teachers, good teachers, and good methods, in the middle schools, some subjects might be omitted from the higher school course, or the course shortened.

*Section I (Law and Literature).—*The subjects are morals, Japanese, Chinese classics, foreign languages, history, logic and psychology, first principles of law, first principles of political economy (for literature students), and gymnastics. The foreign languages are English, German and French, two of which must be taken. Law students may take up Latin as well. The time table provides for 29-31 hours a week, including 8 or 9 devoted to each of the languages; but in all sections it is liable to a number of variations and exceptions, according to the attainments and objects of the student, and as much as 14 hours a week may be given to German or French.

*Section II (Science, Engineering, Agriculture).—*The main subjects are morals Japanese, English, either German or French, mathematics, physics, chemistry geology and mineralogy, drawing, and gymnastics. Certain classes must also take

botany and zoology, or surveying, as the case may be; students of agriculture must take German rather than French; certain others may take up Latin. From 30 to 31 hours are provided for.

*Section III (Medicine).—*This course includes morals, Japanese, German, either English or French, Latin, mathematics, physics, chemistry, zoology and botany, gymnastics. The class has from 29 to 31 hours weekly of lecture or experimental work, 13 of these being devoted to German. In all sections morals, though put in the forefront, gets only one hour weekly, and that only in the last year.

207. The following is a comparison of the subjects studied by a student of English literature in a Japanese higher school and in a Bombay Arts college, respectively. Comparison with Bombay.

<i>Collegiate course.</i>	
<i>Japan (3 years).</i>	<i>Bombay (4 years).</i>
Morals.
Vernacular.
Chinese classics.	Second language.
English.	English.
German or French.
History: Japanese, Eastern, General	History: Greek or Roman, Indian, English (1688-1832).
Logic.	Logic.
Psychology.
Elements of law.	..
Political economy.	Political economy.
Drill.
(Done at school).	Algebra, Euclid, Trigonometry.
Ditto.	Physics.
.....	English literature, period and books; second language, ditto.

208. Some idea of the scope of the work may be formed from a consideration of the text-books used in one of these schools. For *History* the first year class use a Reading book of Japanese history, and Outlines of Eastern History; in the second year, Freeman's General Sketch, or a German, or a French book; in the third year a German, or a French book. Examples of text-books.

Mathematics is of chief importance in the second section. Here in the first year we have Todhunter's Plane Trigonometry; in the second, Puckle's Conic Sections, Burnside and Pantón's Theory of Equations; in the third, Williamson's

Differential and Integral Calculus, Hicks's Elementary Dynamics.

The *Chemistry* of the second and third sections includes inorganic, organic, and medical chemistry.

Elementary *Logic* is taught by lectures, and Jevons's Elementary Lessons; *Psychology* by lectures.

For *Latin* the books are Japanese compilations.

The *French* books in the literature section are --

First year.—Japanese text-books and grammars.

Second year.—Voltaire, *Histoire de Charles XII*; Montequieu, *Grandeur et Décadence des Romains*; Imamura, *Grammaire française appliquée*; Grenier, *Précis de Droit usuel*.

Third year.—Guizot, *Histoire de la Civilisation en Europe*; Leroy-Beaulieu, *Précis de l'Economie politique*.

These books are such as are prescribed for the B.A. course at Bombay.

English.—Here a selection is made from the following books, according to the circumstances of the student: --

First year.—Souvestre, *An Attic Philosopher in Paris*; Jerome, *Three Men in a Boat*, and *Novel Notes*; selections from Boswell's Johnson; Nesfield's Anglo-Oriental Series of English Readers; Scientific and Technical Readers.

Second year.—Aldrich, *Story of a Bad Boy*; Collier's History of English Literature; Smiles, *Art of Living*; selections from Mark Twain; Prose Readings from Eminent Authors; Specimens of the Short Story.

Third year.—Stevenson, *New Arabian Nights*, and *Island Nights Entertainments*; Conan Doyle, *Adventures of Sherlock Holmes*, *Tragedy of the Korosko*, and *Exploits of Brigadier Gerard*; J. Morley, *Addresses*; Tom Brown's *Schooldays*; *The Lady of the Lake*; *David Copperfield*; Anstey, *Vice Versa*; Readings in Modern Prose.

Several of these last are hardly on a level with those read in the first year of the Bombay college course. At one time books

of a more classical character were read in these schools, but Conan Doyle and similar writers are now preferred, as being at once modern, easy and interesting. It is, however, sometimes difficult to get a supply of suitable books, unless they are ordered well in advance; and students are unwilling to pay more than a shilling or two for a text-book.

209. In some schools little English composition is done, translation from Japanese being preferred; elsewhere the classes are given sentences to combine, then stories to reproduce, and finally subjects for "free" composition, but this last only in the case of the seniors. Much of the English work is done by Japanese teachers, foreigners being engaged chiefly for "composition and conversation;" but few higher school students seem capable of conversing with a stranger. One foreigner, young and enthusiastic, has been offering extra hours of English conversation to those who care to come to him, but the number attending is very small, and most of the teachers deprecate anything of the sort, as calculated to leave them no leisure at all.

210. Promotion and graduation are decided by terminal and annual examinations, conducted by the faculty of the school. A cursory glance at some of the question papers on record revealed questions on *Julius Cæsar* and on *Three Men in a Boat*; on the *summum bonum*, categorical imperative, personality, and moral sense; on Metternich and Palmerston, Louis Napoleon and the *coup d'état*, on the Corn Laws, on Lamartine, O'Connell, Cavour, and George Canning, on the Reformation in England, France, and Germany. A paper on Physical Science consisted of these three questions:—

1. Sketch the theory of cosmic evolution
2. Describe and explain any one method of accurately measuring length.
3. Explain the physical condition of the sun which may be concluded from the spectroscopic study of it.

In the appendix are given full copies of papers in English, mathematics, dynamics, physics, and chemistry, recently set to the graduating classes of one of these schools.

Examination
results,

211. In order to pass, students have to obtain 60 per cent. of the marks, but this they appear to do easily ; in fact 80 or 90 per cent. are *freely given*. The marks are not declared, and the order of merit is not known, except that the head of each class may receive a reward of some kind. The final marks are obtained by averaging those given for daily work, and terminal and annual examinations, together with conduct marks. Absence or suspension involve loss of marks, but a substitution mark may be given in cases of sickness, and sickness appears to be not uncommonly feigned. In one school with 1,000 pupils, about 40 were said to fail in the year ; in another, where the graduating classes would number about 200 men, 12 were "ploughed" last year, and one of these for immorality rather than bad work ; in a third school, 3 failed out of one class of 40, and out of another none. Allowance must be made for the worst being weeded out in the first two years ; yet even so, if we compare these results with those achieved in India in our B.A. examinations, the difference seems remarkable. Moreover, as indicated above, some fail for other than intellectual reasons ; and in one school a quarter of the candidates were kept back on one occasion, nominally for failure in examination, but really on account of a disturbance in which they had broken windows, etc. The foreign teachers do not hesitate to say that the standards are absurdly low, at any rate as regards the languages ; but that it is no business of theirs, as long as their employers are satisfied. A story is told of a foreigner, recently appointed, who had not been warned of what was expected of him, and consequently created consternation by sending in his marks chiefly in the thirties and forties. The nature of the crisis being explained to him, he hastened to convert thirty and forty into eighty and ninety, and peace was restored. The foreigners do not, as a rule, attend meetings of the faculty, the proceedings being in Japanese. There is always a chance of failure, of course, and so students often work hard before an examination, dieting themselves on raw eggs and milk, and forswearing *sake*, while they commit paraphrases of English

passages, or details of science, to memory ; but graduating classes have been known to get themselves photographed before the examination, so confident were they of passing it. The reasons for all this may be found partly in the easy-going disposition of the Japanese, partly also in fear. Sometimes they are afraid of the possible consequences of disappointment to the student himself ; more often they are afraid of disturbances, or even incendiarism. The higher schools, like the middle schools, have in the past acquired some notoriety for "strikes." Hence the director of the school usually employs his influence in the direction of mercy, being unwilling to expose himself to the risk of a disturbance which might cost him his appointment.

212. Besides military exercises, fencing and wrestling, ^{Physical training.} tennis, baseball, and often rowing, flourish in the higher schools, their baseball teams having been known to defeat foreign teams at Yokohama. Athletic sports are held from time to time, and the usual long walks. At Tokyo the students contribute 4 shillings a year towards the games. Some schools have also a debating society, in which all subjects except those of a religious character may be discussed ; and a magazine, for which there is no lack of contributions.

213. In 1902 the higher schools graduated 875 students, ^{Students and graduates.} whilst 1,582 were admitted, two of the schools being too new to graduate any. The number who left in the course of the year was 249, chiefly for domestic reasons ; but 18 died, 6 were expelled, and 44 struck off. A good many disappear in this way, temporarily or permanently, and some fail in the school examinations. Sometimes they turn up again, and a man of 35 has been known to attend the first year class of a higher school. Students can postpone their military service, and graduates need only serve for one year. Graduates, again, of the first and second sections, who are specially proficient in English, may be licensed without examination to teach in normal or secondary schools. But 99 per cent. of the graduates proceed in the first instance to the university studies for which they have been preparing. Those who graduated from the

preparatory course in 1902 were 856, whilst those admitted to the schools three years earlier were 1,187, showing that nearly 28 per cent. had fallen by the way.

Teachers.

214. Each school has at its head a director, who is not expected to do any teaching, and of whom as a rule little is seen ; but the schools seem well administered. There is said to be a good deal of routine office-work, as is perhaps indicated by the fact that 8 schools, with an average of 600 students apiece, entertain 52 clerks. In 1903 the total number of teachers was 301, made up of 180 professors, 21 assistant professors, 75 other instructors, and 25 foreigners. The professors draw from £60 to £250 a year, and contribute one per cent. towards pensions. Their working hours are said to average 18 or 19 a week ; but two foreigners whom I met were doing from 20 to 24, and a young Japanese teacher of English 21. The foreigners are employed to teach languages, and consist of 11 Germans, 9 Englishmen, 2 Americans, 2 Frenchmen, and 1 Swiss. They are appointed by the director of the school, who finds a man and makes the necessary contract with him for one, two or three years, as the case may be. Sometimes a man already in Japan is engaged, sometimes one is brought out from home, being secured probably through some Japanese travelling or residing in the country concerned. They are commonly paid from £22 to £25 a month, £30 being probably the maximum.

Finance.

215. The total expenditure of the eight schools in 1902 amounted to over £51,000, or an average of nearly £6,400 apiece, the Tokyo school costing £9,700. The cost per pupil was between £10 and £11. An entrance fee of 2 shillings is levied, and the tuition-fee was recently raised to 50 shillings a year, payable in three instalments. The income from fees is not stated, but should be between £11,000 and £12,000, or about 23 per cent. of the expenditure, the rest being met out of public funds. The best students in each year may be exempted from fees ; and at Kyoto loan scholarships have been established. But the whole expenditure on these schools is

only 0.9 per cent. of the total public expenditure on education, as roughly estimated.

Chapter VII.—IMPERIAL UNIVERSITIES.

216. It will be convenient to take first some general facts ^{Universities} about the imperial universities; then to give some account of the university of Tokyo, with the colleges of literature and science, the others being reserved for the chapters on professional and technical education; and lastly to say a few words about the university of Kyoto. Imperial universities are declared to have for their objects "the teaching of such arts and sciences as are required for the purposes of the State, and the prosecution of original research in such arts and sciences." Each consists of a university hall for the purpose of research, and colleges for the purpose of instruction. At present there are two such universities, one at Tokyo, the other at Kyoto. The latter was established only in 1897, the former is almost as old as the new era in Japan, though of course it has developed considerably. At Tokyo there are six colleges (law, medicine, engineering, literature, science, and agriculture); at Kyoto three (law, medicine, science and engineering), with an affiliated medical college at Fukuoka in the island of Kyushu. Both of these universities are maintained by the Government, which in 1902 spent over £100,000 on that of Tokyo, and over £50,000 at Kyoto. Besides these institutions there are private colleges and universities, of which the leading examples are the Keiogijiku and the Waseda, both at Tokyo; these are referred to elsewhere, and it is sufficient to say here that the two mentioned are attended by large numbers of students, mainly of a richer class than those who frequent the imperial universities, and consequently able to pay higher fees. Neither these nor the Government colleges admit female students, but a private university for women has recently been opened, of which an account will be found in the chapter on female education.

217. The educational code of 1872 contemplated the creation ^{History.} of eight universities for Japan; but for 25 years Government

were only able to provide for one. Then a second was started, and there has been much talk of establishing a third at Sendai, the educational centre of Northern Japan. Some would go further, and convert all the present higher schools into universities; but against this has to be set the want of the necessary funds, and probably also of a sufficient staff of university professors. For the existing universities have set a high standard of work; and there are those who maintain that this was only rendered possible by the concentration of efforts upon Tokyo for so long, and that it would be a pity to disturb existing standards by the multiplication of universities. The present ones, besides being well-manned, enjoy the advantage of being compact and centralised. At Tokyo the college of agriculture is necessarily outside the city, but the other five are planted side by side, on a fine area reserved by prudent foresight for the purposes of a complete university. In the case of Kyoto, to the three colleges which are together a fourth at a distance has been affiliated; but this is the only example so far of a condition which is normal in India. The growth of university education in the last ten years or so has been as marked as that of other branches. In 1885 Tokyo had 1,200 students with 154 teachers; in 1895 the number of students had grown to 1,600; in 1897, when the university of Kyoto had got to work, the pair reckoned over 2,200 students with 191 teachers; and in 1902 there were over 4,000 students with 349 teachers (including 18 foreigners). This gives one teacher for every eleven or twelve students, and one student in an imperial university for every eleven or twelve thousand of population.

Relative
popularity of
the colleges.

218. A study of the relative numbers of students attending the various colleges at Tokyo reveals extraordinary fluctuations, which throw some light on the comparative popularity of different professions, as well as on the Japanese fondness for what is new. Thus, the newly-founded college of agriculture in 1890 reckoned 37 per cent. of the total number of students, but steadily declined to 8 per cent. about 1898, and now reckons

less than 11. The college of medicine held first place in 1885 with 60 per cent. of the students, a proportion which fell to 11 in the next ten years, after which it climbed up again to 17, giving the college the second place. The college of law, which stood second in 1885 with 17 per cent. of the students, had risen to the first position ten years later with 29 per cent., and has increased its lead since then. In 1885 the college of engineering stood lowest with less than 3 per cent.; ten years later it came second with 18, and now claims fourth place with 13. The college of literature had 10 per cent. of the men in 1885, they fell to less than 7, then rose to over 13, and now claims rather less than 10. Lastly, the college of science, after standing fourth in 1885 with less than 4 per cent. of the total, soon sank to the bottom, and remains there with an even smaller percentage. On the other hand, the development of "University Hall" shows a remarkable growth of advanced studies; reckoning only 47 students in 1890 out of 1,300, it now holds 571 or 15 per cent. of the whole number attending the university. From this account it will be seen that for many years law has headed the list, and science stood at its foot; the former leads to diplomatic and other official appointments, as well as to practice; the latter to little but a few professorships, already filled. Medicine, after a steep descent, has recovered much of its old position, but some are deterred from it by the amount of German involved. Literature has on the whole sunk, and engineering risen; agriculture made a brilliant start, but was probably found to lead to so little that it has steadily declined in popularity; and post-graduate studies have equally steadily risen. It is admitted that the subjects of science and literature at present attract, on the whole, the weakest and least ambitious students; the former leads to little but teaching and journalism, both of which are poorly paid. Similar tendencies prevail at Kyoto, where it has not been found necessary to open a college of literature as yet; there law claims 36 per cent. of the men, engineering 30, medicine 21, university hall 7, and science less than 6.

University
organization.
The pre-
sident.

219. Each university is governed by a president and a university council, whilst each college has its own director and faculty. Since its reorganization in 1886 the university of Tokyo has had the following six presidents :—

1886. H. Watanabe, then governor of Tokyo prefecture ; afterwards a minister plenipotentiary.

1890. H. Kato, president before the reorganization.

1893. A. Hamao, director of a bureau in the Educational Department ; afterwards minister for education.

1897. M. Toyama, a professor in the college of literature ; afterwards minister for education.

1898. D. Kikuchi, a professor in the college of science ; afterwards minister for education.

1901. K. Yamagawa, a professor in the college of science.

The president, who ranks in the first class of officials, has an office within the university precincts, which, in the case of Tokyo, he attends regularly. He convokes the university council, and presides at its meetings, appoints all lower officials, and submits suggestions to the Minister regarding the appointment or promotion of higher ones. The administration and finance of the university are carried out by secretaries and a staff of clerks under his direction. The universities of Japan have the good fortune to be administered on academical, not political, lines ; and neither their organization, their procedure, nor their curriculum, has as yet become the subject of party conflict.

University
council.

220. The university council consists of the directors of the various colleges, and of one professor from each, who is elected by the faculty of his college for a term of three years, after which he may be re-elected. Thus the council at Tokyo consists of the president and 12 members ; at Kyoto it is smaller. It considers the institution or abolition of courses of study, as recommended by the college concerned, the faculty of which is left to settle the details ; questions concerning professorial chairs ; general matters relating to the internal government of the university ; and questions submitted by the Minister or

president. It can also initiate suggestions to the Minister. The details of curricula, the examination of students, etc., are left to the faculties of the colleges; whilst the method and matter of instruction depend on the judgment of the individual instructor, no text-books being prescribed. New regulations have to be submitted to the Minister, but sanction is usually obtained without difficulty, and Government interfere very little with the university. Of other interference there is none, so that the council has practically a free hand. It meets as often as may be required by business.

There are also certain university committees, *viz.*, a health committee, consisting of a chairman and six members; a committee for the water-supply; a committee for the warming apparatus; and a library committee, consisting of a professor from each college.

221. The director of each college is appointed by the Minister from amongst its professors; while serving as director he need not occupy any chair. He supervises the instruction in his college, convokes the faculty, and presides at its meetings. The faculty consists of the professors only, but an assistant professor or lecturer may be specially summoned to a faculty meeting. As a rule, foreigners do not attend these meetings, even when entitled to do so, as the proceedings are in Japanese, and some of them complain that in their absence their marks are tampered with, so as to save students from failing. The faculty proposes to the university council the introduction or abolition of courses, and settles their details; it deals with the qualifications of candidates and with their examination, and considers questions submitted by the Minister or president. It meets weekly when necessary.

222. The time available for instruction in each college is about 230 days in the year. The academic year begins on September 11th, and is divided into three terms, the vacations being the usual ones: a fortnight at the New Year, a week at the beginning of April, and two months in the summer. But many professors stop lecturing long before the summer

examinations to give the students time to revise their work. Seven national holidays are observed in the year, and an anniversary day, falling on March 1st at Tokyo, on May 1st at Kyoto.

Admission.

223. Candidates for admission must have completed the preparatory course of three years at a higher school, or must pass an entrance examination, for which the fee is ten shillings. This last applies to strangers rather than to Japanese, who almost always come from the higher schools and enter the university without further test, except on the rare occasions when the overcrowding of a particular course renders it necessary to hold an entrance examination. As the higher schools cannot be entered before the age of 17, aspirants to the university courses who come from them must be at least 20; and the average is generally much higher. Thus, in 1902 the ages of those admitted varied from 19 to 37, the general average being 23. In that year the total number of students admitted to both universities was 919 out of 942 applicants; but as the number admitted to the higher schools was close upon 1,600, of whom 1,300 may be expected to complete the preparatory course, it is evident that the universities must arrange somehow to accommodate increased classes. Besides "students" there are also "pupils," *i. e.*, persons who have not followed the regular course, or who desire to study only special subjects; foreigners come under this category, and have to prove themselves qualified for admission. Tokyo had over 700 applicants of this class, of whom only 296 were enrolled, these including 2 Chinese, 6 Indians, and 1 Korean. All but 30 were studying subjects connected with medicine or agriculture.

Sureties.

224. When a student is admitted he is required to take the prescribed oath, to pay an entrance fee of 4 shillings, and to sign his name in the college register. He must also present a written declaration, in prescribed form, signed by two sureties who are responsible for him in all matters connected with

the college. The sureties must be over 21 ; one of them should be his father, elder brother, or other relative ; the other must possess a house or land in Tokyo, or be deemed a suitable person by the director. If a surety dies, or loses his qualification, he must at once be replaced. When a student desires to leave a college he must present a written application signed by himself and one of his sureties. They are also responsible for his removal in case of illness or death.

225. The former dormitories at Tokyo have been closed, Discipline the space being required for other purposes, and students live in lodgings over which there is no supervision ; even their sureties at times do not know their address. They are considered old enough, in fact, to look after themselves. At Kyoto quarters are provided for 160 students out of about 1,000 ; the rest live as they please. In this dormitory six students share a study, four a bedroom ; one of the lecturers superintends. There is no roll-call ; the professor is supposed to know his students, and to ascertain whether they are present or not, if he cares to ; but the director of one of the colleges remarked that, for himself, he did not care whether forty men attended his lectures, or ten, or one. Students, however, are examined by the lecturer on his course, and so for the most part consider it expedient to attend. Men are occasionally turned out of a college for immorality, but there are no cases of insubordination. For idleness or misconduct a student may be warned, suspended, or dismissed from the college by the director, subject to the approval of the president. The presidents commonly address some words of advice to the students, both when they first join the university, and on the anniversary day.

226. Except for the students of the Waseda (private) Daily life university, who wear a square college-cap, there is no special academic dress in Japan. The students wear the ordinary uniform, with peaked cap ; and no special caps, gowns, hoods, or other academic insignia are seen among the professors or holders of degrees. Of his daily life a college student gave the

following account. He got up at 7-30, breakfasted at 8, then looked at the newspapers and attended classes until 12. Dinner followed, and then classes again, or other work, until 3, after which he rested for an hour. He then took some exercise, or read, until supper time, about 6, and finally studied till 12 or 1 at night. He lived in lodgings, and spent about 50 shillings a month, buying more books than most students, but paying no tuition fees, as he stood at the head of his class. This amount he was able to earn by teaching Japanese to foreigners. His amusements were tennis and archery, for which he paid a small amount monthly to the athletic club. Twice a week he wrote a letter home, considering that it would be disrespectful to address a mere post-card to his parents.

Course of
study,

227. The course of study lasts from three to four years, according to the subject; for post-graduate work in university hall Tokyo assigns five years, Kyoto at least one. Some colleges admit "listeners" who are not regular students; others admit "elective" pupils, persons who wish to study one or more subjects, but not the full course. A regular student may also pursue as elective studies not more than two subjects in any other course. All the colleges at Tokyo (and Kyoto is beginning to do the same) maintain associations of professors, graduates and students, for the investigation of special branches; these meet periodically, and publish their results in their respective journals. Thus, the college of law has a law society, an international law society, and a political science association; the college of engineering has an engineering society, an architectural association, and a society of electrical engineering; the college of literature has a philosophical association, a history club, an imperial literary society, a philological society, and an ethical club; the college of science has a chemical club, a zoological society, a botanical society, and an anthropological society; and the colleges of medicine and agriculture have their appropriate associations also. Membership is not strictly confined to members of the university, and the journals are sold to the general public.

228. Promotion and graduation are generally determined Examinations. by the results of examinations, but in some colleges these are combined with the average of daily or terminal marks. In the methods of examination the various colleges differ somewhat; but, speaking generally, oral examinations are a prominent feature, question-papers are much shorter than we are accustomed to in India, and questions are often determined by lot. The principle is the same as elsewhere in the Japanese system, that every teacher should examine his own class, usually on concluding a particular course of lectures. Hence the examinations are comparatively informal; questions are often reproduced by a "jellygraph," or merely written on the black-board; there are neither fees from the candidates, nor fees for the examiners; and there are no scandals arising from the leakage of questions. A student who absents himself from an examination is held to fail in it, unless he can establish illness or other valid reason, in which case he may be specially examined at a later date; but it is alleged that there is a good deal of sham-sickness. Not much is heard of cases of "cribbing." Standards are left to the faculties and teachers, and there is no outside pressure for either raising or lowering them; but probably examiners are disposed to be easy-going on the whole, here as elsewhere in Japan. The weaker students, however, undertake a certain amount of feverish cramming, sometimes sitting up all night and then being taken ill in the day, just as happens in India. There is no division into classes, and no list of marks is issued; only those who pass first in their groups being known by reason of their receiving some reward—exemption from tuition fees in the cases of annual examinations, a watch from the Emperor in the case of graduation. "Mark-hunting" is considered mean.

229. The health of university students is considered to have Health. improved considerably of late years, though some still weaken themselves by over-study; and the diet of many has been rendered more nourishing by the inclusion of meat. Influenza prevails in winter; and they are also liable to nervous debility,

insomnia, and indigestion, cases of which are officially declared to be "most numerous just before the annual examination," a phenomenon not unknown in India. Physical exercise, is not compulsory, but there is a University Athletic Club with sections for rowing; athletics; baseball, football, and tennis; swimming; *judo* (wrestling); fencing and archery. Space is reserved for these purposes in the university grounds, and regattas and athletic meetings are held from time to time. Members pay a small monthly subscription for each section that they support, *viz.*, 10 pence at Kyoto, and considerably less at Tokyo.

Discontin-
uance of
studies.

230. In 1901, when the regular students at Tokyo numbered 2,670, the number who left before graduation was 116, and 21 died. Many of these merely changed their department of study; the remaining 57 were thus classified:—left for sickness, 7; for private reasons, 43, half of whom came from the college of law; for non-payment of fees, 5; for unbecoming conduct, 1; went abroad, 1.

Graduation.

231. Graduation at Tokyo depends on passing the annual examinations and a final graduation examination; the weakest are, no doubt, weeded out during the course, or put back, and as in other cases in Japan the graduating classes have few or no failures. At Kyoto, on the other hand, after passing the ordinary examinations a man can submit a thesis at any time, and if this is approved by the faculty he receives a diploma from the president; there is no graduation examination, and consequently no percentage of failures. Here practically all will graduate in time, six years being allowed in which to complete a three years' course, and eight years for four. Under these favourable circumstances few give up the course, *e. g.*, in 1902 only 3 regular students out of 630. It follows that there is no special graduation ceremony at Kyoto; but an anniversary day is celebrated on the 1st of May, when a report is read, speeches are delivered, and the most successful receive prizes from the Emperor. At Tokyo there is a regular graduation ceremony held in July in the university reading-room,

but owing to want of space only those directly concerned are admitted. The Emperor attends from time to time, and addresses a few words to the professors before entering the room, but there are no speeches during the actual ceremony. A representative of each class receives the diplomas from the director of the college; and the Emperor's chamberlain presents silver watches to the most distinguished. In 1904, for instance, 474 graduated, of whom 12 received watches. Two years earlier the number of regular students graduating from the Tokyo colleges was 457, thus distributed:—law, 141; engineering, 117; medicine, 98; literature, 69; agriculture, 20; and science, 12.

232. College students may postpone their military service till the age of 28, and graduates need only serve for one year. ^{What becomes of the graduates,} Graduates may also be licensed without examination as qualified teachers of their respective subjects in normal, secondary, special, and technical schools. They may assume the title of *gakushi*, corresponding to our Master's degree, though not officially recognised as a degree, the particular course of study pursued being indicated by a prefix. In ten years, ending with 1900, Tokyo produced over 3,000 graduates, of whom 33 per cent. graduated in law, 26 in engineering, 17 in literature, 11 in medicine, 6 in science, and 6 in agriculture. In all, in 25 years, the imperial universities have turned out some 5,000 graduates, who are in great demand in all the professions; but the supply (now about 500 annually) is by no means equal to the demand. Thus, of 1,700 judicial officers only 300 are graduates; of 3,200 high executive officers about 400; of 4,300 teachers in middle schools about 300; and of 40,000 doctors only 600.* Hence even graduates of ordinary ability find little difficulty in getting situations. The graduates of 1901 numbered 406, and the Minister's report gives an account of what had become of them by the end of the official year, from which we gather that 35 per cent. were continuing their studies or had become teachers; 24 per cent.

* *Japan by the Japanese*, pp. 253, 238.

were holding Government appointments, executive, judicial, or technological, or else had entered the army and navy; 17 per cent. were practising law or medicine; 13 per cent. had joined business houses; and less than 10 per cent. were unemployed. Of those who fell under the last head three-quarters came from the colleges of law and literature.

University
Hall.

233. The University Hall is not a building, but a collective name for students engaged in advanced studies. Graduates of the colleges are admitted to the hall by the president on the recommendation of the faculty of their college, which may also appoint a professor to superintend their studies. For two years they are prohibited from undertaking any work outside their special study, and are in most cases expected to reside in Tokyo and to work in their colleges; many, however, work by themselves, and some attend the regular lectures if these happen to fit in with their wants. They enjoy the use of the university library. The student is expected to report progress every year, or every two years, according to circumstances. Should he desire the degree of *hakushi* (corresponding to the Doctor's degree of the West), he must submit a thesis after five years. No sureties or fees are required of these students, of whom there were 531 at Tokyo in 1902, thus distributed:—law, 210; medicine, 55; engineering, 106; literature, 101; science, 42; and agriculture, 17. The literature men were studying such subjects as sociology, the science of religion, the literature of modern China, pedagogics, psychology; whilst at the college of law the circulation of money and international law were two of the special studies. As a college graduate becomes liable to military service at the age of 28, this period of post-graduate study must frequently be interrupted by a year of service.

Degrees.

234. The title of *hakushi* referred to just now is the only degree officially recognised. It is of nine kinds, denoted by prefixes expressing the subject in which the holder has graduated; these are law, medicine, pharmacy, engineering, literature, science, agriculture, forestry, and veterinary medicine. The degree is conferred by the Minister for Education on (1) those

who have passed the prescribed tests in the university hall, or have produced a special thesis and are considered by a college faculty to have attained the same standard; (2) those who are considered by the assembly of *hakushi* to be worthy of the degree. It may also be conferred on the college professors upon the recommendation of the president. If the holder of the degree is guilty of dishonourable conduct he may be deprived of it by the Minister, in accordance with a vote of the *hakushi*. The assemblies of the *hakushi* are of nine kinds, and may be convoked by the Minister or by their chairman, who is elected by and from among the members. No resolution may be passed unless more than half the members are present; a resolution for granting the degree requires a majority of not less than two-thirds of those present, a resolution for its forfeiture a majority of not less than three-fourths; the voting is by ballot. In 1892 there were 114 holders of the degree, a number which only rose to 123 in the course of the next six years. But in 1899 no less than 116 such degrees were conferred: 53 on the recommendation of the *hakushi*, 27 on that of the presidents, 14 on that of the university councils, 14 for theses, and 3 for work in university hall. The next year saw only 17 fresh ones, but in 1901 sixty-five degrees were conferred, and in 1902 thirty-five, bringing the total up to 350. These are distributed as follows:—engineering, 94; medicine, 77; law, 55; science, 49; literature, 42; agriculture, 13; veterinary science, 9; forestry, 6; and pharmacy, 5.

235. In 1903 the number of teachers in the university of To-
kyo was 256, consisting of 106 professors, 57 assistant professors, 76 lecturers, and 17 foreigners: of the last 5 were Germans, 3 Americans, 2 British, 2 Russians, 2 French, whilst Switzerland, Italy, and China accounted for one apiece. At the same time the university of Kyoto had a staff of 93, including 49 professors, 19 assistant professors, 24 lecturers, and 1 foreigner, a German. Professors and assistant professors give their full time to the colleges, and do not (except in the case of doctors) engage in private practice; lecturers are men with other occupations, who come for a small number of hours. A professor is practically Teachers.

chosen by the faculty of the college, the director suggesting the name to the president, who communicates it to the Minister for Education for formal appointment. Most of the Japanese professors have graduated in Japan and then studied abroad for a time; many of them have foreign degrees. Foreign lecturers may be picked up on the spot; but foreign professors are usually obtained from their own countries, through the Japanese legations, or through experts, such as Lord Kelvin. They have generally come to their work young, and not as men already possessed of a reputation; many of them have made names for themselves in Japan, but the older men, who helped to make the colleges what they are, have now for the most part disappeared. At one time a small colony of them had residences within the university grounds at Tokyo, but almost all of these have vanished.

Teachers'
work and
pay.

236. The work of a full professor varies; one may teach for two hours a week, and another for twelve, but seven is considered a fair average. Some have no classes at all, and devote themselves to research; and the Japanese public, who at one time shared the Indian idea that a professor who is not lecturing is necessarily wasting his time, are getting over this. If there are fewer hours of teaching, however, more independent work is expected from them, the results being published in the journals and bulletins of the various colleges. There is also the work of post-graduate students to be supervised. The salary is divided into two kinds, proper and official. The salary proper goes by a scale fixed according to length of service and order of appointment; the official salary depends on the chair filled or the nature of the instruction given. At Tokyo the average annual pay of a Japanese professor is £185, of an assistant professor £84, and of a lecturer £42; the average pay of a foreign professor is £684. A professor appointed to direct a college may receive extra pay up to £50 annually. At Kyoto it was said that a professor drew from £80 to £160 a year, to which from £40 to £70 might be added for taking charge of a course; an assistant professor receives from £30 to £60, a

lecturer from £20 to £30. The president here is paid £400 a year. In addition to their ordinary work, tours are frequently undertaken; thus, in one year 56 tours were made by Tokyo professors for the practical guidance of students, 65 for scientific investigation, and 10 for study in foreign countries.

237. The university library at Tokyo contains between three and four hundred thousand volumes, of which about two hundred thousand are Japanese or Chinese works; 13,000 or more volumes are added yearly, by donation or exchange, or else out of a Government grant of £3,000. In 1902 the library was open on 304 days, the number of visitors was 31,000, and the number of books used 186,000. Besides the library there is a reading-room capable of holding 300 students, lit by electricity, and open from 7 a. m. to 9 p. m. The university staff are provided with separate rooms for reading and smoking. Card-catalogues and printed catalogues are furnished. Tickets of admission to the reading-room are granted to graduates of the colleges or of university hall, to students recommended by their faculty, and to certain other persons, a fee of 2 shillings a term being charged in some cases. Text-books are sometimes lent for use in class, professors are allowed to take out volumes to the number of 30, and books are issued to students for the vacation. This library has been growing so rapidly that its space will soon be insufficient. The college of agriculture has a library of its own, containing nearly 30,000 volumes. The university library at Kyoto, opened in 1897, five years later possessed 61,000 volumes, of which 35,000 were European.

University
libraries.

238. The university funds consist of the sum of money already accumulated (about £5,000 at Tokyo), of real or personal property bestowed on it by the Government or private individuals, and of the balance left over from each year's appropriation, which it is allowed to retain instead of refunding it to the national treasury. The expenditure on the university, which was £36,000 in 1885, had increased to £50,000 in 1892, and now, when there are two of them, amounts to

Finance.

£150,000, or about 2·9 per cent. of the total public expenditure on education as roughly estimated. Both of them want more, Tokyo crying out for both ground and buildings, and for an increase of the present income by at least 50 per cent.* Some would like to increase the fees for this purpose, others think that the students could ill afford the extra tax. At present Tokyo charges only 50 shillings a year, Kyoto 70. The published statistics throw no light on the income of the universities, nor on the details of their expenditure; and, though I asked for the cost of the various colleges at Tokyo, the figures supplied do not include salaries, and so are of little use for comparison with Indian conditions. They were as follows:—law college, £1,300; medical college, £3,600, and hospital, £21,000; engineering, £6,300; literature, £1,500; science college, £3,800, and astronomical observatory, £800; agriculture, £6,900. But, taking the number of the staff as given in the Minister's report, and the average rates of pay as supplied to me, I have made a rough calculation of the salaries, by the inclusion of which we may form a general idea of the comparative costliness of the colleges:—

			£
Medicine	29,900
Engineering	13,800
Agriculture	13,400
Literature	10,700
Science	8,700
Law	7,600
Total			84,100

Dividing these approximations by the number of students and pupils attending each college we get the following as the cost of training an individual:—science, £99; medicine, £70; agriculture, £36; literature, £33; engineering, £29; and law, £7. (The college of literature is comparatively expensive, because it has twice as many foreign professors as any other.)

* *Japan by the Japanese*, page 252

On the other hand, the total regular expenditure of the universities divided by the number of students yields £28 as the average cost at Tokyo, and £73 at Kyoto. The income from fees is not stated; but if each student paid the fees as given above, the income from this source would be about £9,000, or 6 per cent. only of the total expenditure. Engineering students pay £1 extra for materials.

239. In each class the best student is exempted from tuition Scholarships, fees for the following year. Further, at Tokyo a system of loan scholarships has been established, of two kinds, according as they come from the college or from private donors. A college scholarship, worth not more than £12 a year, may be allotted to a student taking up a course for which special assistance may be required, if he is proficient, of good character, and himself unable to meet his expenses. There are now 20 such scholars. A donation loan scholarship is awarded according to the wishes of its donor, but does not usually exceed the sum named above; the number of such scholars is at present 70. Scholarships are allotted to students by the faculty of the college, for a term not exceeding one year in ordinary cases. The scholar must execute a bond undertaking to refund the loan by monthly instalments, beginning six months after his graduation; from one month after graduation until repayment is complete he must also pay interest at the rate of 6 per cent. If he quits the university he must refund the whole amount at once. There are also scholarships offered by various Government Departments, and by the Red Cross Society, for students of law, medicine, engineering, or agriculture, who agree to enter the service of the Department or Society concerned. But it is pointed out that the average expenses of a university student are at least half as much again as the value of a scholarship, if not double of it. The university of Kyoto also has both loan scholarships for poor students, and others for the encouragement of special branches of study.

Imperial University of Tokyo.

History. 240. In 1856 the Tokugawa Government established a *Ban-sho Shirabejo*, or "place for the examination of barbarian writings," a name altered a few years later to that of *Kaiseijo*, or "place for developing and completing."* This institution was revived after the Restoration of 1868 by the new Government, as a school of foreign languages under Mr. Verbeek, whose work, it need hardly be said, is entirely ignored by the official account of its history. Under a new name it was placed under the new Board of Education, and then was turned into the First Middle School of the first grand educational district. In 1873 it was transferred to new quarters and renamed. Four years later this school, which had departments of law, science, and literature, was combined with the Tokyo medical college to form a university. In 1886 the college of engineering, and in 1890 that of agriculture, were incorporated with the university, which now consists of a university hall and six colleges, representing six different faculties.

Buildings and equipment. 241. The university is planned on a large scale, and is still being constantly expanded and better equipped, the expenditure on new buildings and repairs amounting to £34,500 in 1902. A considerable amount is also spent on the purchase of instruments, apparatus and books. Besides a library and hospital, there are numerous laboratories, museums, observatories, and a botanical garden; a marine biological station on the coast; and farms and forests connected with the college of agriculture. The site of the university is a fine one, on comparatively high ground, at some distance from the busy centre of Tokyo, in the former town-quarters of the daimyo of Kaga, the wealthiest of the feudal lords, and of his host of retainers. The buildings, partly of brick and partly of wood, make a fair show from the street, though more utilitarian than beautiful; from the back, however, they are scattered and often very ugly. There is a

* Murray's *Hand-book for Japan*.

luncheon-room for the professors, pleasantly situated on a knoll overlooking a lake and the students' recreation-ground, the building containing a reading-room as well. Two long tables are provided for lunch; at one each faculty meets on one day in the week, the other is for members of the remaining faculties.

242. The strength of the various colleges was as follows in 1902, there being in addition 531 students in the university hall:—

College.	Teachers.	Students.	Average number of students per teacher.
Law	32	1,097	34
Medicine	38	526	14
Engineering	60	468	8
Literature	46	325	7
Science	32	88	3
Agriculture	48	370	8

The colleges of law, medicine, engineering, and agriculture will be dealt with in subsequent chapters; those of literature and science remain for treatment here.

College of Literature.

243. The staff of the college in 1903 consisted of 18 Staff professors (one of whom was attached to the university of Peking), 6 assistant professors, and 32 lecturers.

The following were the subjects provided for:—

Professors.—Japanese; Chinese (2); Sanskrit, German; French (and Latin); comparative philology; philosophy (2); psychology, ethics, and logic (2); aesthetics; history and geography (2); Japanese history (2); sociology.

Assistant professors.—Japanese (2), theory of knowledge, Japanese history; Chinese history.

Lecturers.—Japanese (4); Chinese (5); Korean; English (4); German (4); French; Russian; Italian; Buddhist philosophy (2); psychology; science of religion; history; Japanese history (3); history of legal institutions; diplomatics; pedagogics.

The professors of German and French, one professor of philosophy, two lecturers in English, and one apiece in Italian,

French, Russian, and German, were foreigners ; and five of the Japanese possessed foreign degrees.

Relative
popularity of
subjects.

244. The college has hitherto offered nine courses of study, which between them produced 530 graduates in ten years ; their relative popularity may be judged from the numbers 'of these graduates. Philosophy claimed 159 ; history, 106 ; Japanese history, 87 ; Chinese literature, 54 ; Japanese literature, 46 ; English literature, 46 ; German literature 17 ; comparative philology, 12 ; and French literature, 3.* Of late, however, though philosophy claimed more than twice the number taking any other subject, English literature stood second.

Recent
changes.

245. In 1901 the graduates from this college numbered 71, of whom 23 pursued their studies further, 28 were appointed to schools, 1 received an administrative post, 1 joined the army, 1 engaged in "miscellaneous pursuits," and 17 were still disengaged at the end of the year. From this it would appear that the courses of this college lead either to the teaching profession or to nothing very definite ; and as the ill-paid profession of a teacher is waning in popularity, the college of literature has of late been attracting an inferior class of students. In consequence, a radical change has been made in its arrangements, as from September 1904. Hitherto students have been required to attend 23 lectures a week, and to pass compulsory examinations. In future only 12 hours will be obligatory, and only those who wish for a diploma need present themselves for examination. This, however, will be made stiffer, and it is hoped that weak candidates will thus be deterred from joining the college, whilst the better men will gain by the time available for private study.

New courses
of study.

246. In future there will be three departments, those of philosophy, history, and literature. Under each head various courses are offered, consisting of subjects partly obligatory, partly "for reference ;" a unit of attendance for each subject is three hours a week for one year ; and a student is required to

* *Japan by the Japanese*, page 253.

attend at least four units each year. Before he can present himself for the graduation examination he must have attended the college for at least three years, must have completed the study of his various obligatory subjects (as certified by the instructors in charge), and must have passed an examination in languages. This last will be held in March of each year, and a student may appear for it in any year that he pleases; of English, German, French, Japanese, and Chinese, he must offer either two or three according to the nature of the course he has taken up; and 60 per cent. of the marks must be obtained in each language. The nature of the examination is left to the director of the college to settle. The graduation examination will consist of a thesis and an oral test; the former must be submitted in April, and if it is found satisfactory the student will be orally examined in June. Sixty per cent. of the marks must be obtained in the thesis, forty in the oral; the former being multiplied by four and added to the latter, the sum is divided by five, and the result is the graduation mark. The new courses, with the obligatory subjects prescribed for each, are as follows, the figures indicating the number of units of attendance required.

Philosophy.

247. *Philosophy and History of Philosophy.*—Introduction to philosophy, 1; logic and theory of knowledge, 1; pure philosophy, 1; history of Oriental philosophy, 1; history of European philosophy, 2; Chinese philosophy, 1; Hindu philosophy, 1; ethics, 1; psychology, 1.

Chinese Philosophy.—Chinese philosophy, 5; history of Oriental philosophy, 1; introduction to philosophy, 1; ethics, 1, *either* pure philosophy *or* psychology, 1; *either* sociology *or* pedagogics, 1.

Hindu Philosophy.—Hindu philosophy, 3; history of Oriental philosophy, 1; introduction to philosophy, 1; logic and theory of knowledge, 1; pure philosophy, 1; science of religion, 1; Sanskrit, 1.

Psychology.—Psychology, 3; *either* introduction to philosophy *or* history of European philosophy, 1, *any three* of ethics, sociology, pedagogics, aesthetics, 3; psychiatry, 1; physiology, 1; biology and anthropology, 1.

Ethics.—Ethics, 3; psychology, 1; sociology, 1; *either* pedagogics *or* science of religion, 1; introduction to philosophy, 1; history of Oriental philosophy, 1; history of European philosophy, 1; Chinese philosophy, 1.

Science of Religion.—Science and history of religion, 3; Hindu philosophy, 1; psychology, 1; *either* sociology *or* pure philosophy, 1; *any two* of introduction to philosophy, history of European philosophy, *or* history of Oriental philosophy, 2; logic and theory of knowledge, 1; *either* ethics *or* Sanskrit, 1.

Æsthetics.—Æsthetics, 2; history of fine art, 2; psychology, 2; *either* history of Oriental philosophy *or* history of European philosophy, 1; introduction to literature, 1; *any two* of Japanese, Chinese, English, German, *or* French literature, 2.

Pedagogics.—Pedagogics, history of education, and law of educational administration, 4; psychology, 2; ethics, 1; sociology, 1; *any two* of Chinese philosophy, Hindu philosophy, *or* history of European philosophy, 2.

Sociology.—Sociology, 3; psychology, 1; ethics, 1; *any two* of pedagogics, philosophy, political economy, statistics, 2; science of religion, 1; recent history, 1; *either* introduction to philosophy *or* history of Oriental philosophy, 1.

History.

Courses in
history.

248. *Japanese History.*—Japanese history and diplomatics, 5; historical methodology and chronology, 1; outlines of Chinese history, 1; outlines of European history, 1; geography, 1; *either* psychology *or* sociology, 1.

Chinese History.—Chinese history, 4; historical methodology, etc., 1; outlines of Japanese history, 1; outlines of European history, 1; geography, 1; psychology, 1; sociology, 1.

European History.—European history, 4; historical methodology, etc., 1; outlines of Japanese history, 1; outlines of Chinese history, 1; geography, 1; psychology, 1; sociology, 1.

Literature.

Courses in
literature.

249. *Japanese Literature.*—Japanese language and literature, 5; philology, 1; introduction to literature, 1; psychology, 1; æsthetics, 1; introduction to philosophy, 1.

Chinese Literature.—Chinese language and literature, 5; philology, 1; introduction to literature, 1; psychology, 1; æsthetics, 1; introduction to philosophy, 1.

Sanskrit Literature.—Sanskrit language and literature, 5; philology, etc., as before.

English Literature.—English language and literature, 5; philology, etc., as before.

German Literature.—German language and literature, 5; philology, etc., as before.

French Literature.—French language and literature, 5; philology, etc., as before.

Philology.—Philology, archaic languages (Greek and Latin), and modern languages (Korean, Ainu, Italian, Russian), 6; introduction to literature, 1; psychology, 1; *either* sociology *or* introduction to philosophy, 1; *either* æsthetics, science of religion, *or* anthropology, 1.

It will be noticed that in every case 10 units are assigned to a course, *i. e.*, 30 hours weekly spread over three years ; leaving at least two hours a week for languages or "reference" subjects.

* 250. It remains to be seen how the new scheme will work in Philosophy and pedagogics. Hitherto a student of English literature has had to attend lectures in the following subjects :—

First year.—Introduction to philosophy, history of European philosophy, English Latin, German, either history or French.

Second year.—History of Oriental philosophy, phonetics, comparative grammar of Romance and Teutonic languages, English, Latin, German, French.

Third year.—English, æsthetics, history of fine art, *either* Japanese or Chinese literature, Latin, history of modern European literature, pedagogics.

A set of question-papers on this third-year course will be found a little later. Pedagogics and the introduction to philosophy used to figure in every course in this college ; the history of European and of Oriental philosophy in most of them. Some knowledge of the history and principles of education were probably thought of value, not only to those who were destined to become teachers, but also to those who might take part in public affairs, as officials, politicians, or journalists ; but the teaching was theoretical only. Philosophy of her own Japan has never had ; until lately she was content to borrow Buddhist and Confucian metaphysics. At present considerable interest is manifested in Western doctrines, whether materialist or idealist ; but it is alleged that abstract speculation does not really appeal to the Japanese mind, and that the taste for philosophical study is largely simulated. "Philosophy and metaphysics are regarded by them as the profoundest of all branches of learning, and in order to be thought learned they profess great interest in these studies."* The possession of philosophical (as of mathematical) ability has indeed been denied to them ; but a distinction must perhaps be made between interest in philosophical problems and

* Peery, *The Gist of Japan*, p. 61.

ability to construct original systems.* The feudal order was not calculated to stimulate speculation, even if the knowledge of the time had provided the necessary material; but under the new stimulus original thought may appear, just as interest in philosophical problems seems to break out in unexpected quarters. Mr. Gulick quotes the case of a man who had attended no school since learning the elements of English ten years before, and yet had read Hegel's *Philosophy of History* through three times, and was then studying Kant,—both in English translations.

A philosophy
paper.

251. The following was the paper on "Introduction to Philosophy" set to the first-year class in 1904; not less than three questions were to be answered, a sufficiently modest demand, as the paper is evidently straight out of the class-work:—

1. Can we speak of emanation in Spinoza's system?
2. Difference between atomistic and methodology?
3. What is pantheism? Historical examples?
4. Substance, attribute, *modi*?
5. Historical significance of Socrates?
6. Ontological, cosmological, teleological elements?
7. Examples of pluralistic doctrines in Greek philosophy?
8. Difference between the principles of Empedocles and those of Anaxagoras?
9. Realism and nominalism?
10. Idealism?
11. Dialectic?
12. The doubt of Descartes?

English.

252. The subject of English is dealt with by two foreign lecturers and two Japanese. One of the foreigners takes the "practical" part, *i. e.*, conversation and composition; attendance at these is not compulsory, and the class is said to dwindle away to four or five men in the course of the year. The other three lecturers form a group, but do not divide the subject between them by any common agreement; each takes such parts as he pleases, and goes ahead with them. The second foreigner lectures partly on English authors, partly on the

* Gulick, *Evolution of the Japanese*, p. 226.

history of English literature ; in the last academic year he reviewed the period from Milton to the beginning of Wordsworth's age, and proposed to follow it by the Victorian period in the present year. During the same year one book was read, Shakespeare's *Winter's Tale*, this particular play being selected chiefly because the requisite fifty copies were available at the booksellers'. The play, which is prescribed from time to time for the M.A. examination at Bombay, is a difficult one, and the weaker members of the class begged to be examined on the "introduction" rather than on the text ; the problem was met by setting a number of questions on both, and leaving them to please themselves. The paper itself will be found a little later on ; there is nothing to show that any of the questions were alternatives, and it is safe to say that such a number of questions directly out of introductions or notes would hardly be set at Bombay, even for the B.A. examination. The questions on the literature period are also quoted below. To the two Japanese lecturers I wrote to ask about their work ; one of them did not vouchsafe a 'reply, but I gathered from other sources that he had concluded some "studies in Chaucer," and was proceeding to deal with Arthurian legends. The other gentleman kindly sent me the following account of his current lectures on the subject "What is literature ?" : —

"I have discussed the elements of literature, their relations and characteristics, the difference of emotional effects between the experience in actual life and the contemplation of human experience through literature, several eliminations of emotions they undergo when we enjoy works of art ; the difference of attitude towards phenomena, mental and physical, assumed by poets and artists on one hand, and by philosophers and scientists on the other ; the meaning of 'artistic truth' as against 'scientific truth,' etc. The subject now taken up is the means resorted to by poets in bringing out the artistic truth. After that I shall lecture on the struggle of the artistic and scientific truth, and the struggle of the several phases of artistic truth ; their history and evolution, and some laws of their evolution. I lecture in Japanese, but quotations are dictated in English. The poets and prose writers whom I quote in the course of my lecture in order to illustrate my points are mostly English, they are in fact any standard authors from Chaucer to Kipling."

The paper set to the graduating class in connection with this lecture will be found further on. The writer continues :—

"Side by side with the lecture I read with my students some standard works of English literature. This year we have finished *Macbeth* and some part of *King Lear*. I have translated them into Japanese line by line, keeping always in view the difference of taste between the East and the West. I have also tried to bring out the spirit of the plays, the psychology of the characters, their evolution, the beauty and harmony of certain passages, the unity of feeling arising out of the construction of plots, etc. The philology and etymological use of the words in the plays have not been lost sight of. In studying these classical English authors I have always made it a point to criticise them from the standpoint of a Japanese, to compare the views I have formed on them with those of the critics of Europe."

On the Shakespeare read the following paper was set to the first-year class :—

1. Choose one of the following questions :—
 - (a) Contrast *Macbeth* and *Lady Macbeth*.
 - (b) Discuss the dramatic effect of the porter's speech.
 - (c) Give some instances from *Macbeth* [of a Japanese figure].
 - (d) Give some impressions your æsthetic sense has received from the play.
2. Paraphrase :—

"O ! reason not the need . . . stain my man's cheeks," (*King Lear*, II. iv. 267-281.)
3. Translate :—
 - (a) "The raven himself is hoarse . . . to cry Hold, hold !" (*Macbeth*, I. v. 39-55.)
 - (b) "To-morrow and to-morrow . . . signifying nothing" (*Macbeth*, V. vii. 19-28.)

What a student had read.

253. I happened to make the acquaintance of one of the best English literature students of his year, and the only Japanese student that I met who could speak or understand English at all freely, or who could write it tolerably grammatically and intelligibly. This young man, who was 25, informed me that he had read some of Chaucer and Spenser; nine or more plays of Shakespeare; Milton, the minor poems and two books of *Paradise Lost*; Bacon's *Essays*; some of Addison, Steele, and Swift; *Rasselas*; Goldsmith's poems; Burke's *Speech on Conciliation with America*; some of Cowper and Wordsworth (including part of *The Excursion*); some of *Childe Harold*, Shelley, and Keats; some of Thackeray and Dickens; and a

good deal of Tennyson, Rossetti, Swinburne, and Browning; besides miscellaneous books of a critical or æsthetic character, novels, and so forth. It must be remembered that at the same time he had been studying a good deal of German, French, Latin, and Chinese, besides his own language; as also a good deal of philosophy, philology, æsthetics, and pedagogics, all of which entered into the literature course. I happened to dip into his Æsthetic note-book; the notes were mostly in Japanese, with some passages in German, and occasional expressions in English. The word *katharsis* gave a clue to one passage; elsewhere were sketches of different styles of architecture.

254. Each annual course of lectures is concluded by an examination in that subject, which is then done with as far as ^{Graduation papers.} the successful candidates are concerned; hence the graduating classes are examined only in the subjects of the third year. Where it is so difficult to form an idea of the actual character and results of teaching mainly conducted in a strange language, it may be of use to glance at the papers set to the candidates; though even of an examination paper the real nature cannot be understood without some knowledge of the teaching on which it is based, and the standard by which it is marked. The following were the papers set in 1904 to the graduating English literature class, consisting (I believe) of 12 members, all of whom passed. The first paper should be compared with the syllabus already given of the lecture on "What is Literature?"

English.

1. Distinguish between artistic and scientific truth.
2. "A poem," says Shelley "is the very image of life expressed in its eternal truth." Criticise.
3. What is meant by the four elements of literature? Give their characteristics.
4. Criticise :—
 - (a) He was a lovely youth! I guess
The panther in the wilderness
Was not so fair as he.
And, when he chose to sport and play,

No dolphin ever was so gay
Upon the tropical sea.—*Wordsworth.*

- (b) One moment had been burnt into his life as its chief epoch—a moment full of July sunshine and large pink roses shedding their last petals on a grassy court enclosed on three sides by a Gothic cloister. Imagine him in such a scene: a boy of thirteen, stretched prone on the grass where it was in shadow, his curly head propped on his arms over a book, while his tutor, also reading, sat on a camp-stool under shelter.—*Eliot*
- (c) My plain story is of two Kentish damsels, and runs from a home of flowers into regions where flowers are few and sickly, on to where the flowers which breathe sweet breath have been proved in mortal fire.—*Meredith.*

History of English Literature.

Write short but careful essays on any four of the following subjects:—

1. Milton. 2. Bunyan. 3. Dryden. 4. Pope. 5. Defoe. 6. English novelists of the 18th century. 7. The Spectator and kindred periodicals. 8. Dr. Johnson and his friends. 9. Coleridge. 10. Byron. 11. Scott. 12. The "Edinburgh" and other Reviews.

Shakespeare's Winter's Tale.

Not more than *four* of the following subjects to be attempted:—

1. To what period of Shakespeare's literary career is this play assigned, and on what grounds?
2. Discuss the character of Leontes.
3. " " " " Hermione.
4. " " " " Autolycus.
5. " " " " Paulina.
6. Paraphrase and explain —
 Since what I am to say must be but that
 Which contradicts my accusation, and
 The testimony on my part no other
 But what comes from myself, it shall scarce boot me
 To say not guilty; mine integrity,
 Being counted falsehood, shall, as I express it,
 Be so received.
7. Paraphrase and explain:—
 My traffic is sheets; when the kite builds, look to lesser linen. My father
 named me Autolycus; who being, as I am, littered under Mercury, was
 likewise a snapper-up of unconsidered trifles. With die and drab I
 purchased this caparison, and my revenue is the silly cheat. Gallows and
 knock are too powerful on the highway; beating and hanging are
 terrors to me; for the life to come, I sleep out the thought of it.

8. Paraphrase and explain :—

Methinks a father
 Is at the nuptial of his son a guest
 That best becomes the table. Pray you once more,
 Is not your father grown incapable
 Of reasonable affairs ? Is he not stupid
 With age and altering rheums ? can he speak & hear ?
 Know man from man ? dispute his own estate ?
 Lies he not bedrid ? and again does nothing
 But what he did being childish ?

9. Paraphrase and explain :—

Paulina.— Had our prince,
 Jewel of children, seen this hour, he had pair'd
 Well with this lord ; there was not full a month
 Between their births.

Leontes.— Prithce, no more, cease, thou know'st
 He dies to me again when talk'd of, sure,
 When I shall see this gentleman, thy speeches
 Will bring me to consider that which may
 Unfurnish me of reason. They are come.

10. What inaccuracies, geographical and otherwise, are there in this play ?
11. What criticisms have been made on Act V ?
12. If you were going to make an exhaustive study of Shakespeare's works, what editions, commentaries, etc., would you use ?

Æsthetics.

(Questions in German ; 3 hours allowed.)

1. The nude in art.
2. Æsthetic inspiration.
3. Free creation.
4. The beautiful and the useful in architecture.
5. The tragic

Japanese Literature.

An essay, to be written at home, was prescribed on a subject taken from the oldest Japanese book of poetry.

Latin.

The candidates were required to translate the well-known story of the "Belly and the Members" from Livy, ii. 32, two hours being allowed, and the use of a dictionary.

History of European Literature.

(Three hours.)

1. The general tendency of the philosophy of the 18th century.
2. Voltaire's position in French literature.
3. Diderot as a dramatic poet and critic.
4. An epitome of Rousseau's life, and short characteristics of his chief works.

Pedagogics
(Questions in German.)

1. Grades of instruction.
2. Universalism and individualism in pedagogics.

Sanskrit.

255. The subject of Sanskrit being naturally of interest to a visitor from India, I wrote to the Japanese Professor of Sanskrit (an M.A. of Oxford, and Doctor of Leipzig), but was not favoured with any reply. In the old curriculum the subject was assigned two hours a week for two years, in the school of comparative philology, a school which had produced 12 graduates in ten years, and in 1903 reckoned 7 students. Evidently the class-work must be of an elementary nature.

Japanese
history.

256. Attached to the college of literature is a committee for compiling materials for the history of Japan. This committee decided in 1900 that, after one more revision, the materials selected by them should be published in a continuous series of volumes. A certain number of these have already appeared. Numerous originals preserved in temples or by old families have been copied; and more than 100,000 of these, as well as 20,000 volumes of old records, are available for consultation by students of Japanese history. At present the study of that history is in a somewhat ambiguous position. The national records begin with legends of the gods, from which they pass to legends of the early emperors, from Jimmu Tenno (B. C. 660) downwards. The narratives are quite continuous, and by some are accepted as they stand; others reject the legends of the gods, whilst regarding Jimmu and his successors as historical realities. European scholars, on the other hand, find no secure footing in Japanese history until the 5th or 6th century of the Christian era. Probably many Japanese agree with them in their hearts, but for political reasons it is not safe for them to undertake any critical research on such lines. The authority of the present emperor is considered to be bound up with his descent from Jimmu and the latter's divine ancestors. A few years ago a university professor was summarily dismissed for criticising the history of the early emperors; and the lesson was not thrown away. "We

find Mr. Haga, in his otherwise excellent little lectures on Japanese literature, gravely informing his hearers that certain odes were composed by the gods, some others by Jimmu Tenno and other ancient Mikados, and one by a monkey !"* Professor Chamberlain states that even for the 16th and 17th centuries the official records practically ignore the Catholic episode, and that the ruling powers constantly manipulated both the ancient records and those of their own time. "The process of 'cooking' still persists, as may be seen by any critical pair of eyes that will take the trouble to examine contemporary official documents, and more especially the text-books published for use in the schools." On the other hand, perhaps few nations are more widely instructed in the traditional history, whether national or local, the celebrated tales having been freely imparted to children long before schooling became as general as it is.

College of Science.

257. The staff of the college of science in 1903 consisted of Staff. 19 professors, 10 assistant professors (of whom 4 were studying abroad), and 8 lecturers. No foreigners were included, but nine of the professors possessed foreign degrees. The following subjects were provided for :—

Professors.—Mathematics (2) ; physics (2) ; theoretical physics ; seismology ; chemistry (3) ; zoology (3) ; botany (2) ; geology, palaeontology, and mineralogy (2) ; anthropology.

Assistant Professors.—Mathematics (3) ; seismology ; chemistry ; zoology.

Lecturers.—Physics (3) ; chemistry (2) ; geology ; geography, fisheries.

258. The college offers various courses of study which between them produced 194 graduates in ten years ; 75 of these graduated in physics, 32 in chemistry, 32 in geology, 20 in mathematics, 17 in zoology, 14 in botany, 4 in astronomy. In 1901 the graduates of this college numbered 19, of whom 13 continued their studies in the university hall, 5 were appointed to schools, and 1 became a technologist in a public office. As scientific investigators the Japanese are always painstaking and often brilliant ; but the college of science is the least

* Chamberlain, *Things Japanese*.

popular, because it leads to so little. Ordinary appointments in schools are not very attractive, and higher appointments, such as professorships, offer few vacancies. Hence, while every other college increased the number of its graduates, those in science fell from 26 in 1897 to only 12 in 1902.

Courses of
study.

259. The college now offers eight courses, each of three years:—mathematics, astronomy, theoretical physics, experimental physics, chemistry, zoology, botany, and geology. Special courses are also given on seismology for the students of civil engineering and architecture, and on anthropology for the students of history and philosophy. The Tokyo college of science may indeed claim to be the birthplace of the science of seismology, the creator of which was Professor Milne, now retired.

Museums, etc.

260. The seismological observatory attached to the college now possesses a very complete set of recording instruments. The college also possesses fine zoological and geological museums, but the anthropological museum is rather meanly housed. There were, as I understood, no students of this subject at the time, and the professor was peacefully measuring skulls with his assistants. The college further controls an astronomical observatory; a botanical garden containing over 3,000 species; an Alpine botanical garden in the Nikko mountains; a herbarium with many thousands of species; and a marine biological station. This last has made many contributions to science, has trained numerous teachers and investigators, has helped to improve the methods of teaching natural science in schools, and has disseminated well-preserved specimens all over the country. Though primarily intended for the university staff and students its facilities are often extended to others, and in the summer vacation teachers in secondary schools are admitted to a course in practical zoology.

Examinations.

261. In the examinations of the college of science the marks awarded are of four kinds, the term-mark, examination-mark, year-mark, and average mark. The first is determined by occasional examinations, or as the instructor thinks fit; the

second by an annual examination. The year-mark in each subject is obtained by dividing the sum of twice the term-mark and the examination-mark by three; the average mark is determined by dividing the sum of the year-marks in all the subjects by the number of subjects. A student passes if he obtains a year-mark of over 50 per cent. in every subject, with an average mark of over 60 per cent. If the year-mark falls below 50 in one subject only, he may be promoted by special resolution of the faculty; otherwise he is "degraded," *i. e.*, must remain in the same class for another year.

Imperial University of Kyoto.

262. The imperial university of Kyoto originated with a college of science and engineering, opened in 1897; in 1899 colleges of law and medicine were added; and in 1903 a second college of medicine was opened at Fukuoka in Kyushu. In most respects it is simply an immature copy of the university of Tokyo. The colleges are grouped together on the outskirts of the city; and the university also possesses a hospital, a library of nearly 100,000 volumes and a reading-room for 160 students. This year 200 students were admitted for law, 80 for medicine and 300 for science and engineering; and there are said to be about a thousand in attendance altogether, 160 of whom are provided with quarters. The medical course lasts 4 years, but 8 are allowed in which to complete it; the others last 3 years, but 6 are allowed. Practically all who are admitted, therefore, may be expected to graduate in the end.

• The following was the strength of the various colleges in 1902:—

College	Teachers.	Students.	Average number of students per teacher.
Law	20	231	11.5
Medicine	21	133	6.3
Science and engineering ..	52	229	4.4

There were also 48 in the University Hall. The scientific side of the third college attracts few ; of the 224 regular students in the college only 6 were pursuing mathematics, 9 physics, and 4 pure chemistry ; chemical technology reckoned 18, and all the rest belonged to the engineering branches.

Chapter VIII.—PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION.

The profes-
sions.

263. Owing to the extent and complexity of the subject of professional and technical education it is convenient to take the three great professions of law, medicine, and engineering separately. The professional training of teachers is dealt with in another chapter ; the army and navy have educational establishments of their own ; and, lastly, there is "the Church," or what corresponds to it, the Buddhist and Shinto priesthood. The priests are usually trained within the precincts of a temple ; for general education they may be sent outside, but some temples now maintain schools of their own, in which secular education of the ordinary type is given. The Buddhist priests, at any rate, have not a very good reputation for either education or morals, and the Government had occasion some years ago to draw the attention of the hierarchy forcibly to this matter. The number of highly educated men who join the ranks of the priesthood is probably very small. The relative popularity of these professions may be judged from the following. In 1902 normal and higher normal schools, and special training institutes, contained nearly 13,700 male pupils, preparing for the teaching profession ; the law colleges and private law schools had over 11,800 pupils ; the colleges and schools of medicine and pharmacy reckoned nearly 6,800 ; and the engineering colleges and higher technical schools (all departments) had nearly 1,800.

I.—Law.

Popularity of
legal studies.

264. "Dutifully obedient to authority," says Professor Chamberlain, "and not naturally litigious, the Japanese are nevertheless becoming a nation of lawyers." In feudal times, indeed, recourse to litigation was regarded as discreditable, if it could possibly be avoided. The laws themselves were mainly local

customs, "matured by centuries of growth and experience," and the mass of the peasantry were as well acquainted with their rights as with their duties. "A decided and firm appeal against injustice, though it often cost him who made it his head, was nearly always successful,"* but the present writer must confess that he cannot share the whole of Mr. Knapp's enthusiasm for a system ("a nearly ideal democracy"), by which you might probably get your wrongs righted at the cost of devoting yourself and your whole family to a barbarous death. At the present time, however, in spite of a lingering repugnance for litigation, there is no special study more popular than that of law and its cognate subjects, even though modern Japanese law is mainly borrowed from France and Germany, and is no natural development of the national life. Its attraction for the Japanese mind may be attributed partly to the importance of such studies under a constitutional Government, but still more to the influence of Chinese literature, through which the idea of "governing a country and saving its people" has become deeply rooted in the Japanese character.† The study of law and politics admits to official, political and diplomatic careers, as well as to the legal profession; and the young men of Japan are ambitious. Mr. Gulick relates that many a boy has told him of his desire to secure first of all a thorough education, in order that he might eventually become a great and successful statesman. "The modern hero is one who gratifies the patriotic passion by bringing some marked success to the nation. He must be a gentleman, educated in science, in history, and in foreign languages; but above all he must be versed in political economy and law."‡ There are those also who point significantly to the corruption which unfortunately often prevails in municipal and national politics in Japan; but it is to be hoped that the thirst for such ignoble spoils does not figure amongst the impulses of youth,

* Knapp, *Feudal and Modern Japan*, i. 81, 82. † *Education in Japan*, 1904.

‡ *Evolution of the Japanese*, p. 94.

whatever may be the depths to which the mature politician sometimes descends.

The legal
profession.

265. In order to practise the legal profession a licence from the ministry of justice is requisite; graduates of recognised colleges and schools are entitled to receive this without examination, but other candidates must pass an examination which is held twice a year. In 1902 the college of law at Tokyo graduated 83 students in law, and 58 in politics, and the private schools of law and politics graduated 1,400; but not nearly all of these would be eligible for licences. For the lawyer proper there are still plenty of openings in Japan, and practice at the bar is remunerative. Not so a seat on the bench; for the judiciary is badly paid, and the failure of an attempt to get their salaries raised led to a number of judges and public procurators going out on strike in 1901. The ordinary salaries range from £60 to £400 a year, whilst the president of the supreme court receives £550, and the chief procurator £500. The result is that the ablest men practically begin their legal career as judges, and then resign in order to practise at the bar, with the prestige imparted by their previous seat on the bench. And thus the courts are liable to consist of men inferior in age, experience, and authority to the counsel practising before them; a condition which cannot be altogether escaped under any system, but to which foreign merchants attribute some of their unfortunate commercial experiences with the Japanese. The judicial system is modelled on that of France. There is one supreme court, with 25 judges, seven of whom sit together to form a bench; there are 7 appeal courts, with 121 judges, five of whom sit together; 49 local courts, with 399 judges, three of whom sit together; and 310 district courts, with 557 judges, who sit singly.* Thus the average population within the jurisdiction of a local court would be under a million, and for a district court about 150,000. Public procurators are attached to each court. Candidates for judicial appointments have to pass

* *Japan in the Beginning of the 20th Century*, p. 82.

two competitive examinations, unless they are graduates of the imperial universities, in which case they need only pass the second, after serving as probationary judges for three years; but it is stated that out of 1,700 judicial officers only 300 are graduates. At the outset, therefore, a probationary judge has only a theoretical acquaintance with his profession, and need never have practised at the bar. When a vacancy occurs on the bench it is filled by means of an examination of candidates from the next lower grade, and vacancies in the lowest grade of all are filled by a competitive examination amongst the probationers; but regard is also paid to a man's record. The examinations are controlled by a commission consisting of the chief justice, a representative of the Department of Justice, professors from the law colleges, and members of the higher judiciary.* Judges are appointed for life, but, as just stated, many of them soon resign in order to practise.

266. The chief institutions for legal instruction are the two Government colleges of law at Tokyo and Kyoto, besides which there are 15 private law schools. The colleges can only be entered through the higher schools, in which some instruction is given in the elements of law; and "law and economics" now find a place in the curriculum of some middle schools as well. The higher school course of three years, taken in conjunction with the mathematics and science of the middle school, fully corresponds to the training in arts commonly required in India of those who wish to graduate in law as well. The actual law subject is very elementary, and receives only two hours a week in the third year.

267. The college of law at Tokyo has grown out of an institution founded in the Tokugawa period, and afterwards developed into a school with departments of law, science, and literature. In 1877 this school was united with a medical college to form the Tokyo university, a general account of which has already been given. In 1885 the law section absorbed a

Institutions
for legal
instruction.

College of
law, Tokyo
university.

* Curtis, *Yankees of the East*, p. 215.

law school previously connected with the Department of Justice, and also had transferred to it the course of politics from the literature section. It now shares a building with the college of literature. A rough estimate previously given puts its annual cost at about £7,600, of which some £2,700 may be supposed to be recovered in fees.

Staff.

268. The law college staff in 1903 consisted of 26 professors, 8 assistant professors (four of whom were abroad for study), and 9 lecturers. The subjects were distributed as follows :—

Professors.—Jurisprudence, English law (2), German law, French law, Roman law, history of legal institutions (2), constitution, civil code (4), commercial code (2), criminal code, code of criminal procedure, administrative law and public law (2), public international law (2), private international law, political economy and finance (3), politics, and statistics

Assistant Professors.—History of legal institutions, exercises in public law, exercises in private law, political economy.

Lecturers.—German law, French law (2), judicial decisions under the Tokugawa Government, civil code, code of civil procedure, prisons, national debt, banking, and money.

Four of the professors were foreigners: an American for English law, and another for political economy and finance; a German for German law, and a Swiss for French law. Of the Japanese staff three were barristers-at-law of the Middle Temple, and three more held foreign qualifications. The professors and assistant professors give all their time to the university, and do not practise.

Courses of study.

269. Courses are provided in law and in politics, the subjects being the following :—

Law. Compulsory. Constitution, civil code, code of civil procedure, commercial code, criminal code, code of criminal procedure, administrative law, public and private international law, history of legal institutions, Roman law; English, French, or German law. *Optional.* Political economy, comparative history of legal institutions, law of bankruptcy.

Politics. Compulsory. Constitution, political economy, finance, statistics, public law, politics, administrative law, public international law, civil code, commercial code, criminal code (general). *Optional.* Economic history, history of politics, history and comparative history of legal institutions, history of political economy, diplomatic history, private international law, jurisprudence.

In law at least one optional subject must be taken, in politics at least four. Instruction is given by lectures, and there is no definite limit to the length of the course. After completing it a graduate may be admitted to "University Hall" for a further course of five years' study and research, under the general supervision of his professors; should he wish for the degree of *hakushi* he must submit a thesis at the end of that period.

270. The yearly class system with compulsory examinations Examinations, has recently been abolished; now a student may continue for any number of years, and is examined only at his own request. The examinations are of two kinds, ordinary and graduation; and four ordinary ones must be passed before the candidate appears for graduation. The first, second and third are held every June, the fourth in May, and the graduation examination in June; so that the course may be completed in four years, by taking two examinations in the last year. For the ordinary examinations six or seven subjects are prescribed each year, but the same subject is sometimes repeated; for instance, English, French, or German law appears in each (students may choose any one of these three, but must stick to their choice all through). For the final examination five subjects or more are selected by the faculty; as a rule, it is oral, at least two of the committee of examiners being present. To pass, a student must obtain over 50 per cent. of the marks in each subject, and over 60 per cent. of the total; for an optional subject over 60 per cent. In case of failure he may be excused from re-examination in subjects in which he obtained over 60 per cent. The subject of law is considered very difficult, and the oral examinations are found trying; so that in this college one-sixth or one-seventh of the candidates fail, whereas in the other colleges almost all pass. Many of the lectures are dictated, and all are taken down as fully as possible, and then committed to memory; in this respect the law students have the reputation of being the worst offenders.

Students and
graduates.

271. In 1903 the college of law contained 737 men studying law, 409 studying politics, and 39 elective students, or 1,185 in all. At the same time there were 269 law students in University Hall. The tuition fee is 50 shillings a year, the admission fee 4 shillings, and there are no examination fees. Up to the end of 1901 the college had graduated 1,336 men altogether, or nearly 30 per cent. of the total number of Tokyo graduates. Of the 106 graduates of 1901, by the end of the official year 41 had been appointed administrative or judicial officials, and 2 to schools; 5 were practising law, 18 had entered banks or business-houses, 3 had joined the army, 25 had entered University Hall, and 12 were unemployed.

Other insti-
tutions.

272. The law college at Kyoto is of recent foundation, and in 1902 contained 136 students of law, and 78 of politics, besides 17 elective students, or 231 in all. The teaching staff numbered 20; as at Tokyo, the professors and assistant professors do not themselves practise. The tuition fee is 70 shillings a year.

Besides the Government law colleges there are numerous courses of lectures in law, politics, and political economy, given in private institutions, such as the Keiogijiku, the Waseda, and others of less importance. The two named charge higher fees than the Government colleges; about the rest no information is at hand. The Minister's report gives 15 of these schools with over 600 teachers, and 10,000 pupils. They are classed as "special schools," to the regulations of which they must conform.

II.—Medicine.

History of
medical
studies.

273. The medical science and practice of old Japan were borrowed from China; but all through the period of Dutch influence the Japanese showed themselves eager to profit by Western improvements in the healing art, and it was chiefly for medical works that they were willing to pay high prices and to risk their lives. Hence, when foreign naval surgeons or medical missionaries appeared in the country after its reopening, they were usually welcomed by the Japanese doctors; two

Russian surgeons were giving instruction at Hakodate as early as 1858, whilst Scotch and American missionaries both treated the sick, in mission hospitals, and helped the Japanese medical men with their most difficult cases. For most of the foreigners refrained from entering into competition with the Japanese doctors; they acted rather as consultants, claiming no share in the fees, so that no jealousy was aroused.* In this way much instruction was given, directly or indirectly. Later, when the question of systematic education was taken up, Germany was adopted as the model to be followed; German teachers of medicine were introduced, and promising students were sent to Germany to be trained. In 1877 the medical college in Tokyo, originally established by the Tokugawa Government, was combined with departments of law, science and literature, to form a university; and in 1882 general regulations for medical schools were issued, in order to encourage the growth of provincial schools of medicine, and to supply the urgent demand for physicians throughout the country. Six years later, however, the prefectures were forbidden to maintain such schools out of local taxation, and so their number dwindled away to four. The Government for a time maintained medical departments in five of the higher schools, but in 1901 these were reconstituted on an independent footing as special schools of medicine. There is ample room also for private schools, as, according to an enquiry carried out by the Home Department, more than a thousand physicians are wanted annually.† Twelve such schools have existed, with over 2,200 pupils at a time, but the number has been reduced by the issue of new regulations for special schools, with which some of them have been unable or unwilling to comply.

274. For medical practice a licence from the Home Department is necessary. Graduates of the universities, or of Government or public special schools, are entitled to this without

The medical profession.

* Cary's *Japan*, p. 111.

† *Education in Japan*, 1904.

examination ; but for other candidates an examination is held periodically by the educational authorities. Out of 40,000 doctors it is said that only 600 are graduates of the university. In remote villages, where no qualified practitioner can afford to settle, unqualified men are sometimes permitted by the local authorities to practise, with the assent of the villagers ; but such a man would not be allowed to move elsewhere and set up in ordinary practice. It is possible that some of these persons still adhere to methods and resources of the Chinese system ; but elsewhere the Japanese laugh at the idea of consulting a Chinese doctor. Three popular nostrums alone have survived the changes of Meiji. One is acupuncture, the running of needles of various substances to varying depths in the body ; the second is the use of the *moxa*, the fibres of a certain plant made into a small cone, and burnt on the skin ; and the third is massage. The first two have been abandoned by qualified doctors ; but acupuncture is taught to the blind along with massage, and the backs and legs of the lower classes may be seen covered with the scars of the *moxa*, which is also applied to children by way of punishment. But massage, and a few Chinese roots and drugs included in the pharmacopœia, are the sole representatives of the old system in modern practice.

Nurses.

275. The skill of Japanese surgeons, and the excellence of their hospital arrangements, are now widely recognised. The original demand for medical missionaries has in consequence died out ; but some of the missions have undertaken the training of nurses with much success, and similar schools are maintained at many of the hospitals, and by the Red Cross Society. The hospital, for instance, of the college of medicine at Tokyo has a two years' course for chief hospital nurses, and a course of one year for ordinary nurses. Arrangements are also made for the training of midwives.

Institutions for
medical in-
struction.

276. Medical instruction is furnished by special medical schools, Government, public, or private ; and by the colleges of medicine forming part of the imperial universities. The spe-

cial schools are entered from the middle schools, and turn out general practitioners ; whilst men who are more ambitious, or who want to specialise, pass from the middle school to a higher school, and thence to the university. In 1902 there were 21 special schools with 327 teachers and 6,000 students ; and 2 Government colleges with 59 teachers and 659 students, to which a third has since been added.

277. The severance of the five Government medical schools from the higher schools was effected without difficulty, as they already had their own buildings and an almost complete equipment, including hospitals. Four of them have a course in pharmacy as well. The average strength of the teaching staff is 20, of the students 436. The courses of study are under the control of the faculty of each school, that in medicine covering 4 years, with from 31 to 39 hours weekly. Much attention is paid to German. The course of pharmacy covers 3 years, German again receiving from 4 to 10 hours weekly. In both cases 3 hours a week are devoted to military drill. The regular teachers receive from £60 to £250 a year, being allowed private practice as well ; graduates taken on as assistants receive from £3 to £7-10s. a month. In 1903 the total number of students was 2,183, of whom 2,021 belonged to the medical course. The graduates were 360 ; the applicants for admission 1,341, of whom 625 were selected by examination. Candidates must be graduates of middle schools (and therefore at least 17), or possessed of equal attainments. The students and graduates enjoy the usual military privileges. Terms and vacations are as in the higher schools. The five schools cost £20,000 a year, giving an average of £9 per student ; the annual fee is from 50 shillings to £3.

There are also four very similar schools maintained by local authorities, at an annual cost of £19,700, or over £12 per pupil. The total income is £14,800, being £3,800 from fees, and £11,000 "miscellaneous ;" the average annual fee incidence is therefore 48 shillings. Of private schools there are 5 of medicine, 5 of pharmacy, and 2 of dentistry.

Medical college, Tokyo university.

278. University courses in medicine are supplied in the imperial universities, the general arrangements of which have already been described. Candidates for admission must have completed a three years' course in one of the higher schools, but their studies here are purely preparatory (involving a great deal of German), and include no professional subjects. The number of regular students admitted at Tokyo in 1902 was 128, and their average age over 23. This college possesses very extensive buildings, including laboratories provided with everything necessary for demonstration or research in all branches of the subject. The museum contains some thousands of specimens; and the collection of Ainu skulls and skeletons is probably the most complete in the world. A hospital, admitting such patients as are considered instructive, is situated in the university grounds. It accommodates 600 patients, of whom 500 are free. The college staff also treat patients in some of the Tokyo hospitals, thus affording opportunities for the study of infectious and contagious diseases, and of mental disorders. A rough estimate previously given puts the annual cost of the college and hospital at about £29,900, of which some £1,250 may be supposed to be recovered in tuition fees.

Staff.

279. The medical college staff in 1903 consisted of 24 professors, 16 assistant professors (five of whom were studying abroad), and 3 lecturers. None of them were foreigners, but five possessed German degrees. The subjects provided for were these:—

Professors.—Anatomy (3), physiology, hygiene; pharmacology, pathology and pathological anatomy (2); pharmacy (2), surgery (2); forensic medicine, ophthalmology; paediatrics, medical chemistry, medicine (2); dermatology and syphilis; psychiatry; otology, rhinology, and laryngology.

Assistant Professors.—Pharmacy, medicine (2), gynaecology and obstetrics, dentistry, hygiene, paediatrics, ophthalmology, surgery, pharmacology, forensic medicine.

Lecturers.—Gynaecology and obstetrics, medical chemistry, pathology and pathological anatomy.

Courses of study and examinations.

280. The medical course extends over four years, that of pharmacy over three; their details will be found in the univer-

sity calendar. In medicine two examinations are held, one in June, at the end of the second year, and the other between September and December, after the completion of the fourth year. The subjects for the first are anatomy, physiology, medical chemistry, pharmacology, and general pathology. In the second examination the subjects are grouped, and for some of the groups a candidate is examined in one subject only, assigned to him by lot before the summer vacation preceding his examination. All through, the tests are more often oral than written; the number of questions to be answered is extremely small, one or two only, as a rule; and they are commonly selected by lot. The marks in different subjects are multiplied by various coefficients and averaged; in order to pass, a candidate must obtain over 50 per cent. in each subject, and a general average of 60. But a candidate who fails to pass need not be re-examined in any subject in which he has passed.

For pharmacy an examination is held at the end of each year; and after passing three of these, students may appear for the graduation examination, held some time between June and October; but they must first present a thesis containing the results of original investigations. The examination is divided into three sections, written, practical, and oral, the questions being few in number and mainly determined by lot. The marks are averaged as usual; those who fail to obtain 50 per cent. in any one subject fail to pass, and must be re-examined on every subject in that section.

As in other cases, medical graduates may prosecute their studies for five years longer in "University Hall," after which they can present a thesis for the degree of *hakushi*. In 1903 there were 49 such post-graduate students at Tokyo.

281. In the same year the college of medicine contained the following students:—graduates, 2; medical course, 508; pharmacy course, 18; elective students, 99; total, 627. The entrance fee is 4 shillings, the annual tuition fee is 50 shillings, and there are no examination fees. Up to 1901 the college had graduated

Students and
graduates.

715 men altogether, or nearly 16 per cent. of the total graduates of Tokyo university. Of the 97 graduates of 1901, by the end of the year 6 had entered the army, 6 had joined schools, 65 were employed in hospitals, 16 were prosecuting their studies further, and 4 were unemployed.

III.—Engineering.

The engineer-
ing profes-
sion,

282. When Iwakura's embassy was in London in 1872, the attention of Mr. (now Marquis) Ito was drawn to the advisability of starting an engineering college in Tokyo, to train men for the railways, telegraphs, and industries which were to be started in Japan, and he procured through a Glasgow professor the services of Mr. Henry Dyer to organise this college, eventually merged in the university of Tokyo. Since then Marquis Ito has repeatedly called the establishment of this college one of the most important factors in the development of Japan, since from it have come the majority of the engineers who are now working the resources and industries of that country.* It is admitted that now the Japanese can do all ordinary engineering work for themselves as well as any one could; and visitors to the Osaka Exhibition of 1903 were astonished to find the quantity of Japanese-made machinery on view. An enormous amount of work, too, has been achieved in the laying out of railways and roads, and other engineering undertakings, all of which have created a great demand for the services of trained men. It is not surprising, therefore, that the engineering profession has been one of the most attractive, the engineering graduates numbering nearly one-fourth of the total number turned out by the university of Tokyo; as in most cases they are able to step straight into employment, and even into responsible posts.

Institutions
for instruc-
tion in en-
gineering.

283. Instruction in engineering in the lowest forms is given in some of the industrial schools; of a more advanced type in

* *Japan by the Japanese*, p. 65.

the agricultural school at Sapporo, and in the fifth higher school; whilst the highest is supplied in the higher technical schools and in the engineering colleges of the imperial universities. Industrial schools, which are of middle grade, admit graduates of higher primary schools who are over 14 to a three years' course, which includes morals, Japanese, mathematics, physics, chemistry, drawing and drill, as well as technical subjects. Those which teach civil engineering, ship-building, electricity, mining or metallurgy, are 9 in number, with 1,200 pupils. The agricultural school of Sapporo offers a course in civil engineering, considered to be higher than middle grade, of three years, with from 31 to 38 hours a week; it has about 50 students, who pay an annual tuition fee of 30 shillings. The engineering department of the fifth higher school was established in 1897, and offers courses of civil and mechanical engineering, each extending over four years; about 90 students take the first, and about 80 the second, paying an annual fee of 50 shillings. English, mathematics, physics, chemistry, geology, drawing, surveying, dynamics, and drill are common to both courses. The higher technical school of Tokyo has sections for mechanics and electricity, the former of which has 190 students, and the latter 80; the annual tuition fee is £2. The similar school at Osaka offers courses in mechanical and marine engineering, and in ship-building.

284. University courses in engineering are offered by the imperial universities, candidates for which must have completed a three years' preparatory course in a higher school. The average age of those entering is about 23. The college at Tokyo has grown out of the imperial college of engineering organised by Mr. Dyer in 1873 under the auspices of the Public Works Department, from which it was transferred to that of Education some years later. Mr. Dyer has recorded that the Japanese rapidly supplied him with commodious buildings and the best appliances of all kinds. The course then extended over six years, the first and second being devoted to general training.

Engineering
college, To-
kyo univer-
sity.

At the beginning of the third year the student took up a special branch, either mechanical engineering, or civil, or telegraphy, or architecture, or practical chemistry, or mining, or metallurgy; naval architecture was added subsequently. One half of the third and fourth years was spent at the college, and the other half at practical work; the last two years were spent wholly on practice. The college being under the Public Works Department, the students had the run of all the engineering establishments and works under its control; and graduates who were sent abroad for further work invariably distinguished themselves. Mr. Dyer claims that they were not crammed, but taught to think and to work for themselves, as their subsequent careers have shown.* He was assisted by a number of foreigners, to whom Japanese were added as soon as possible. The foreign teachers were mostly young men, who doubtless made mistakes; but they had ideas, and they had the opportunity of trying their ideas, with the result that the engineering college of Tokyo in some respects proved itself in advance of the rest of the world, and many of its methods have since been adopted in other countries. The present college is equipped with various laboratories and workshops, and controls the general supply of water and electricity to the whole university. There are also seven museums for the various departments, containing thousands of models and specimens. A rough estimate already given puts the annual cost of the college at about £13,800, of which £1,600 may be supposed to be recovered in fees.

Staff.

285. In 1903 the staff consisted of 24 professors, 24 assistant professors (of whom 8 were studying abroad), and 22 lecturers. Two of the professors were English; six others possessed foreign qualifications. The allotment of subjects was as follows:—

Professors.—Mechanical engineering (3); naval architecture (3); marine engineering; mining and metallurgy (4); electrical engineering (3); architecture (2); civil engineering (4); applied chemistry (2); applied mechanics; technology of explosives.

* Dyer, *Dai Nippon*, p. 5

Assistant Professors.—Mechanical engineering (3); naval architecture and dynamics (2); mining and metallurgy (2); electrical engineering; architecture; civil engineering and applied mechanics (2); applied chemistry (2); technology of explosives; engineering laboratory practice; geology and mineralogy.

Lecturers.—Naval architecture; marine engineering; mining law; electrical engineering; architecture (2); civil engineering, applied chemistry; organic chemistry and chemical history; chemical practice, design and drawing; chemical laboratory (2); technology of explosives; technology of arms (5); iron construction; aesthetics; administrative laws affecting engineering works; industrial economy.

The professors and assistant professors give all their time to the college. One of the foreigners stated that he worked there for five or six hours daily, though he only gave four actual lectures in the week.

286. Nine courses have been established, each covering three years. Their relative popularity is indicated by the following list of graduates turned out in ten years:—Civil engineering, 232; electrical engineering, 117; mining and metallurgy, 114; naval architecture, 75; applied chemistry, 69; mechanical engineering, 58; architecture, 36; technology of arms, 15; and technology of explosives, 1. Examinations are ordinarily held at the end of the first and third terms in each year. The marks are averaged, and as usual a candidate must get 50 per cent. in each subject, and 60 per cent. of the whole. Those who fail must re-attend classes in every subject. Failures are said to occur chiefly in the first year, if at all; few fail in the graduating class. Students do not hang on for long periods; if they fail once or twice, they give up; but even so they have learned something, on the strength of which they can probably get a place.

287. Some years ago Mr. Ransome wrote in his *Japan in Transition* (p. 172):—

“The weak point, apart from the limited amount of skilled labour available, is that the practical side of the training of the highly educated man has been more neglected than any other. The Japanese have not yet grasped the fact that it is in no sense a degradation for the man who has paid for an education which has enabled him to master the theory, to dirty his hands in acquiring the practice.”

On the other hand, the present professors assert that their students are perfectly ready to take off their coats and dirty their hands; the only question is whether the practice should come after the theory, or be intermixed with it. Dr. Dyer seems to have favoured the "sandwich" system, which is perhaps the better, provided, as one of the professors remarked, that you "do not cut your bread too thin." The students of naval architecture spend a good deal of time in yards during their course; and the others can, through their professors, gain admission to workshops and factories during their vacations. The chief difference seems to be that in older countries young men receive no pay during their practical apprenticeship, or even have to pay a premium for it; whereas in Japan they can get a paid place at once. The only criticism that one of the foreign professors had to offer on his students was that most of them came to the work too late; they were 23 or so when they took it up for the first time, as one of a variety of possible courses. In other respects he had only praise; they were attentive, willing to do practical work, and fairly well trained even in mathematics, a subject supposed to be uncongenial to the Japanese mind.

Students and graduates. 288. In 1903 the college contained 508 students distributed over its various departments. The entrance fee is 4 shillings, the yearly tuition fee is 50 shillings, *plus* a charge of £1 for materials, and there are no examination fees. The usual provision is made for post-graduate work in "University Hall," where the engineering students numbered 97. Up to 1901 the college had turned out 1,072 graduates, or 24 per cent. of the total number at Tokyo. Of the 98 graduates of that year, 8 were continuing their studies further, 9 were appointed to schools, and 37 as technologists in public offices, 34 were engaged by companies, etc., 4 had joined the army, and 6 were still unemployed at the end of the year.

Grouping by branches. Engineering. 289. We may now group these various facilities according to the branches of the subject, *viz.*, civil, mechanical, marine, and electrical engineering, naval architecture, and mining.

Sanitary engineering is included here and there in courses of civil engineering or of architecture.

- (1) Civil engineering is taught (*a*) in two industrial schools, (*b*) at Sapporo, (*c*) in the fifth higher school, and (*d*) in the engineering colleges, where about 36 hours are provided weekly.
- (2) Mechanical engineering is taught in (*a*) 9 industrial schools, (*b*) in the fifth higher school, (*c*) in the higher technical schools of Tokyo and Osaka, and (*d*) in the engineering colleges, where the third year is devoted almost wholly to practical work and graduation designs.
- (3) Marine engineering is taught (*a*) in the higher technical school of Osaka, and (*b*) in the engineering college of Tokyo, as a branch of mechanical engineering.
- (4) For electrical engineering instruction is provided in (*a*) the higher technical school of Tokyo, and (*b*) the engineering colleges.

290. (5) Naval architecture is a matter which Japan considers of prime importance. One industrial school offers an elementary course in ship-building; the Osaka higher technical school has a three years' course in the same; and the engineering college at Tokyo a course of naval architecture, also of three years. In the last the daily working hours are from 8 to 12, and from 1 to 4, and the students are found to be disposed to work even longer. Unfortunately the fine new building for these classes, as well as another, barely completed, for civil engineering, over which I was kindly shown by some of the professors in May, were both destroyed by fire in the course of the summer. Thanks to the co-operation of the navy, and of private ship-builders, students are able to work in various yards and docks for at least 8 months of their course; and thus graduates are enabled to secure fair positions on the active staff at once. During the practical work they are guided by detailed regulations, and supervised by their professors and special yard officials, who submit regular reports on the work done, and assign marks for it.

Mining and
metallurgy.

291. (6) Before the Meiji era mining was conducted on a small scale, and entirely by hand. The new Government, however, imported as many as 80 foreigners for its mines, and established a course of mining and metallurgy in the engineering school; whilst some of the principal mines were taken over and worked on Western lines as models, being subsequently transferred again to private ownership. The result of the work of geological surveyors, mining engineers, and teachers, has been striking. The annual output of coal is now over ten million tons; and the petroleum industry, started in 1890, now produces 1,100,000 barrels a year. Besides these, gold, silver, iron, copper, lead, antimony, manganese, and sulphur are the principal mining products; the value of the copper alone amounting to nearly a million sterling in 1902. About 150,000 persons are employed in the mines; a male metal miner receives about 7 pence a day, a coal miner 8 pence; a woman can earn about three pence, a boy or girl about two.* Instruction of an elementary kind in mining is offered by one industrial school; the Osaka higher technical school has a course of three years in metallurgy; and the college of engineering at Tokyo provides a complete course of three years in mining and metallurgy.

Chapter IX.—TECHNICAL EDUCATION.

History.

292. By technical education is here understood special training in agriculture, commerce, industry, and art. Much of this has been so far systematised in Japan that the various branches present certain common features. It need hardly be said that there was little indigenous foundation for any such system; in old Japan boys might learn a little reading and writing from the *terakoya*, but the rest they picked up through a loose system of apprenticeship. Beginning with the sweeping out of the workshop and the cleaning of the tools, they advanced to helping their masters with easy portions of the work, and then by watching and by practice slowly raised themselves to

* *Japan in the Beginning of the 20th Century*, pp. 289, 303, 324

the necessary degree of skill. After the introduction of the new educational system, the desire to promote the material development of Japan led to various efforts in the direction of technical instruction. Higher technical schools were established, that a supply of the necessary teachers might be forthcoming; apprentices' schools and supplementary technical schools were organised; agriculture, commerce, and manual work were made optional subjects in the primary schools; and permission was given to introduce special courses in these subjects into the middle schools. But the literary tendency was still too strong, and little advantage was taken of these technical alternatives. It was the changes consequent on the successful war with China, and the development of new industries and new ambitions, which altered the whole status of technical education. A scheme of State subsidies for technical schools was introduced; special institutes were established to train teachers for them; and an imperial ordinance was issued (1899) defining their objects, and systematising them on certain lines. Three grades were now recognised—elementary, intermediate, and advanced. But it seems clear that the provision of ever so many technical schools would have been ineffective, had there not come first a sudden expansion of technical openings and of the demand for school-trained men. Until these developed technical instruction languished; on the other hand, when the openings came, Japanese employers seem to have been converted rapidly to a belief in the value of school training, more rapidly, though not more completely, than American employers. The technical teachers and students of Japan can only be congratulated on the readiness with which employers, large and small, have brought themselves into line, and the eagerness with which they take up the graduates of technical institutions. The rapidity of this expansion is sufficiently shown by the following figures. In 1892 there were 26 public and private schools of a technical character, with 2,800 pupils; in 1900 there were 288 schools, with 25,000 pupils; and in 1902 there were 846 schools, with 57,000 pupils. Of these, 629 schools and 30,000 pupils belonged to

the class known as "supplementary;" 102 were agricultural schools, 50 commercial, 25 industrial, 7 nautical, and 32 schools for apprentices, besides the higher institutions managed by Government.

Co-ordination
with local
pursuits.

293. This process has been facilitated by the trouble taken to maintain relations between the various schools and local pursuits. In the case of industrial schools, meetings of local workers are held for the discussion of possible improvements in their industries, or to examine new apparatus or specimens; specimens of their own manufacture are brought for comparison, or as examples, and the pupils' work is submitted for criticism. Agricultural schools send their teachers out from time to time, especially in the vacation, to tour in the district, to make investigations, to hold conversations with the farmers, to assist in extirpating injurious insects, to distribute seeds, plants, or eggs of silkworms for experimentation. Similarly, business men are invited to co-operate with the staff of commercial schools, and the pupils are sent to local business houses to follow actual transactions. These intimate relations are declared by the Minister to have proved very beneficial in promoting the interests of the schools.

Establish-
ment.

294. Technical schools may be established in any prefecture, and the Minister for Education has power to order such to be established, if he thinks fit. Any rural district, also, or city, town, or village, may establish one, if it can be done without detriment to primary education; and any chamber of commerce or private person may do the same. The sanction of the Minister is required for the opening or closing of such a school, except in the case of supplementary schools, for which the sanction of the local Governor is sufficient. In applying for permission the founders must state the proposed name and site of the school, its regulations, number of pupils, date of opening, estimated income and expenditure, number of teachers and their salaries, and the state of technical pursuits in the neighbourhood; and submit a plan of the ground and buildings. A

private founder must in addition submit a short biography of himself.

These schools, public or private, are eligible for the privileges enjoyed by Government or prefectural middle schools; and if they are thus "recognised," their students are allowed to postpone their military service, whilst their graduates can serve for a shorter time, and are eligible for lower civil service appointments.

295. There are three grades of technical education—(1) Grades and institutions. lower, imparted in supplementary technical schools, in apprentices' schools, and in technical schools of class B; (2) intermediate, imparted in industrial schools, and technical schools of class A; (3) higher, imparted in higher schools and colleges. In practice the system is not quite so symmetrical as it looks on paper, institutions nominally of the same grade varying considerably in details and standard; still, it is sufficiently uniform for the purposes of a general review such as this.

296. The aim of the supplementary schools for technical Supplementary technical schools. education was at first imperfectly understood, and they often degenerated into common primary schools, the general subjects tending to crowd the technical subjects out of existence, where both were taught together. In 1902, however, the schools were re-organised, their financial position was improved, and by that time the public were more appreciative of technical instruction, so much so that the 150 schools of 1900 had increased to 630 in 1902, with an average of nearly 50 students apiece. But even now I was told in one district that the "supplementary schools for agriculture" were so called because they were attended by the sons of agriculturists, not because they had anything to do with agriculture; and that the pupils merely read the books of the higher primary course. Of these 630 schools, 1 is maintained by Government, 594 are public, and 35 private; whilst 503 are agricultural, 82 commercial, 44 industrial, and 1 nautical. Their object is stated to be to supplement the work of the primary schools in a practical direction, and to give their

pupils knowledge and skill which they could not get in a mere workshop. The general subjects to be taught are morals, Japanese, and arithmetic; but Japanese history, elementary physics and chemistry, and singing may be added, or on the other hand anything but morals may be omitted, according to circumstances. The technical subjects may be selected out of the following:—

- (a) *Industrial*.—Physics, chemistry, drawing, wood modelling, geometry, mechanical drawing, designing, dynamics, materials, implements, trades, etc.
- (b) *Agricultural*.—Physics, chemistry, natural history, soils, manures, products of the soil, cultivation, implements, harmful insects and plant diseases, horticulture, sericulture, domestic animals, sylviculture, surveying, etc.
- (c) *Marine industries*.—Physics, chemistry, natural history, physical geography, fishing, preparation of fish, rearing of fish, handling of fishing boats, etc.
- (d) *Commercial*.—Commercial arithmetic and correspondence, merchandise, geography, book-keeping, laws relating to commerce, foreign languages, etc.

The number of hours and season for teaching are adapted to local circumstances; one course may last for six months, another for two or three years; many are held in the evenings, or during the winter, or in the intervals between the farming seasons. Some schools collect a fee of 7 pence monthly, others are free. They avail themselves of the buildings of other schools, and their teachers are generally primary school teachers who have obtained a little technical training in holiday schools, or other special courses. Strictly speaking, only boys over 10, who have completed the ordinary primary course, are eligible for admission; but this rule is not enforced, and boys who have never completed the course, or who are far older, are admitted. Sixty-two of these schools are aided by the national treasury to the extent of £1,657, but they have been warned not to count on a continuance of the subsidy owing to the increasing demands from other quarters. The 594 public schools expended £17,000

in 1902, against an income of £4,400, the average cost per pupil being nearly 12 shillings.

297. Technical schools of class B are elementary schools of agriculture or commerce in which the pupils are not necessarily required to revise or supplement their primary education; when the school is industrial, it is called an apprentices' school; and no nautical school of this grade has been established as yet. For admission a pupil should be over 12, and should have completed the second year of the higher primary course (except in the case of apprentices). The course usually lasts three years; and these schools have their own buildings and teaching staff. There are 94 public and 4 private schools of this grade, with 6,380 pupils; the local expenditure on them was £35,000, against an income of £9,200.

298. Technical schools of class A give an agricultural, commercial, or nautical education of middle grade; in the case of industries they are called industrial schools. Candidates for admission should be over 14, and should have completed the higher primary course, or its equivalent. The main course lasts for three or four years, and there are sometimes preparatory or special courses as well. There are 119 public and 11 private schools of this grade, with 20,500 pupils; the local expenditure on them was £218,000 against an income of £40,000.

299. The institutions for advanced technical instruction will be treated of under their proper heads; they include not only the higher technical schools proper, but also higher commercial and agricultural schools, and other institutions.

300. The staff of a public technical school ranks with that of a school for general education of corresponding grade. Of the Government subsidy, a portion (not exceeding one-eighth) goes in aid of the training of technical teachers, the demand for whom at one time greatly exceeded the supply. Special institutes were established for this purpose, attached to the agricultural college, the higher commercial school, and the higher technical school, all in Tokyo. Graduates of normal,

middle, or secondary technical schools are eligible for admission. Others, of lower educational qualifications but with some technical experience, are admitted to a special shorter course at the higher technical school. To all of these an allowance of 12 shillings a month may be granted, as well as to ordinary students of the college of agriculture, the higher commercial school, the higher technical school, the fine arts school, the nautical school, and the marine industries institute; provided that they bind themselves to teach in a technical school for one year longer than the period during which they received the allowance. The total number of aided students is 184, of whom 150 are students of the special institutes; and the total number of aided graduates who are now engaged in teaching is 273. The applicants for industrial and agricultural training recently numbered 315 as against 81 vacancies.

Finance.

301. The total number of technical institutions is stated to be 869, which may be classified thus :—

	Government and Public.	Private.	Total
Elementary ...	691	39	730
Secondary ...	121	11	132
Higher ...	7	...	7

Of the 7 higher establishments 3 are industrial, 2 agricultural, and 2 commercial. There is also a nautical school of the same grade, but it is under the Department of Communications. These figures do not include any colleges of the imperial universities, the technical department of the fifth higher school, or the special schools of fine arts and music. Excluding all of these, the total expenditure of the Government institutions was £93,000, and that of public and private schools £274,000. Towards this total sum of £367,000 the national treasury supplied £113,000 or 31 per cent., £85,000 being expended on the Government schools, and £28,000 in the form of grants to the others (besides £4,000 for the training of teachers). The subvention thus amounted to rather more than one-tenth of the expenditure of these last. The expenditure of local bodies on technical schools in 1902 amounted to £270,000, or 6 per cent.

of their total educational expenditure. Towards this £26,000 were received from Government, £15,000 from fees, and about £12,000 from other sources, leaving £217,000 (or 80 per cent.) to be met out of local taxation. Lastly, the amount spent by Government and local bodies together represents nearly 7 per cent. of the total public expenditure on education, as roughly estimated.

302. As already mentioned, the State grants subsidies to *Grants-in-aid* many of these schools, it being provided that at least seven-eighths of the sum allotted in aid of technical education should be spent in this way; the amount now paid is over £28,000 a year. The grant may not exceed the yearly contribution of the founders of the school, and runs for a period of five years; but as over 250 schools now share in it, the average amount received by each is only £110, and is far from being equal to the sum expended by the founders. The school on its part must submit its budget for approval in advance; and loses its grant if the founders fail to pay their share, if the management goes wrong, or if the regulations are infringed.

303. After these general remarks we may proceed to review ^{Divisions of the subject.} the various forms of technical instruction under the following heads:—agriculture, sericulture, aquatic products, veterinary science, forestry, commerce, industry, navigation, and art. It should be remarked that the first five are all loosely included under “agriculture” by the Japanese.

I.—Agriculture.

304. Until recently the cultivation of the land formed the ^{Agriculture in Japan.} sole basis on which Japanese society rested, the sole source of Japanese wealth. Yet so mountainous is the country that the proportion of cultivable land is extraordinarily low, the ratio to the total area being 53·9 per cent. in Belgium, 50·2 in France, 43·4 in Germany, 27·9 in England, 16·4 in European Russia, and only 13·8 in Japan.* Even of the cultivable portion most is not naturally fertile, and has only been made so by the minute

* Clement, *Handbook of Modern Japan*, p. 312.

labour of generations, by lavish manuring, and by copious irrigation. Four-fifths of the arable land consists of paddy and upland fields, the latter including the land occupied by tea or mulberries; and 30 per cent. of the paddy fields admit of a second crop after the rice, whilst in a few places there are two crops of rice itself. In rare cases even four crops may be raised in the same field, *e.g.*, barley, indigo, beans, and rape.* The agricultural system is said to have been derived from China, and to have changed little in the course of ages. The holdings are small, the average (Hokkaido apart) being about two acres.† There is little hiring of labour, and there are few cattle; as a rule a peasant tills his own field with the help of his family, and even so there are commonly time and labour available for the cultivation of by-products such as silk or tobacco. The conservatism of the farmers is seen in their implements, most of which are very rude, made at home during the winter, and handed down from one generation to the next. The plough is roughly constructed of wood, with an iron point attached, and is said to be very similar to the plough of Egypt in the time of the Pharaohs.‡ At present every effort is being made to improve the methods of tillage, to develop the use of better tools and labour-saving machines, and to encourage settlement on new ground, as in the Hokkaido, where nearly 150,000 farmers settled in the five years ending with 1901. "In spade-husbandry," says an expert, "the Japanese have little to learn, but in stock-raising, fruit-growing, and the raising of hardier grains than rice, they need much instruction."§

The farmers.

305. In the earliest times there seems to have been no distinction between the farmers and the warriors, but in the 14th century a separation took place, and a special military class was evolved. Even so, in some parts of the country, the line between the two was not sharply drawn; some of the *samurai*

* *Japan in the Beginning of the 20th Century*, pp. 98, 103.

† Clement, p. 17.

‡ *Things Japanese*.

§ Quoted by Clement, p. 18.

were allowed to farm, some of the farmers were allowed to wear swords. But on the whole, while the *samurai* developed into the class to which, even today as for centuries past, Japan "looks for safety in war and progress in peace,"* the farmers remained stolidly conservative, caring little by whom they were ruled, as long as taxation left them anything to live on. But, inasmuch as the whole resources of the nation depended on them, their occupation was always held in honour: and this honour was augmented under the Tokugawa system of seclusion, when the Government was confronted with the problem of feeding a large population, rigorously confined to certain islands, with only a small portion of the area available for cultivation. Mr. Knappt has shown that the natural result was the elevation of the farmer class, especially in the provinces directly controlled by the Shogun.

"The farmer was made to rank next to the *samurai* in the social scale Taxation might be pushed to the utmost ability to pay, but it was not permitted to force an industrious farmer into bankruptcy. The fostering of the spirit of independence and self-respect among the farming population led to the formation of village communities, highly organised, independent, and democratic. The fostering care of the ruler was repaid by the positive pride which the farmers took in paying their taxes, a fact for which there is no parallel to be found. . . . The land laws not only discouraged the ownership of large tracts, especially by non-residents, but they made it next to impossible for the small owners to dispose of their holdings. If a farm was sold, the offender was imprisoned or banished; the buyer was fined, and his land confiscated, if there had been a witness he was fined; and the mayor of the village was ordered to resign."

It was the custom for every five families to be united into a jointly responsible group; and the sole principle of grouping being neighbourhood, rich and poor were combined after a fashion which proved very democratic in its working. From this system there arose a feeling of neighbourly responsibility, and a tendency towards neighbourly helpfulness, which took the place of "our insurance companies, savings-banks, hospitals, children's homes, and other business and charitable organisations."†

* Dr. Griffiths.

† *Feudal and Modern Japan*, i, 78.

‡ Knappt, i, 94

Caste works after an analogous manner in India ; but the Japanese principle, that every one should help his neighbour, surely stands upon a higher ethical plane.

Present condition of the farmers.

306. At one time a large proportion of the land belonged in theory to the Shogun, of whom the daimyos held it by a feudal tenure, and they in turn leased it to the farmers. After the Restoration the ownership was vested in the emperor by a legal fiction which permitted private ownership to become general, a land-tax being substituted for the former rent. In 1888, in 38 prefectures out of 46, there were 1,470,000 independent farmers, 2,000,000 who were partly independent, and 950,000 who were merely tenants. Since then matters have become less favourable for the small free-holder, so that the proportion of tenant-farmers must have grown larger. Their condition is stated to be far from satisfactory ; for more than two-thirds of the land tilled by them consists of paddy fields, 60 per cent. of the produce of which goes to the owner. Of the produce of upland fields the owner receives only 45 per cent., but less than one-third of the land cultivated by tenants is of this character.

"The steady increase of population at a rate far beyond that of tillage land helps to keep the rents high, for tenant-farmers are compelled to compete for leases. . . . In extreme cases the share of harvest that falls to their lot is barely sufficient to pay the cost of the manure. In most cases they are obliged to depend on the labour of their own families, while the limited funds they have at their disposal for getting fertilisers or implements further hamper them in their work. The farming classes, which constitute 60 per cent. of the population, are steadily increasing in number, so that those who can afford to do so are migrating to the towns."*

Town-life offers many attractions to persons of active mind ; the spread of education has multiplied the number of these amongst the lower classes ; and thus youths of intelligence are attracted from the routine of the farmer to the bustle of trade and industry. Hence the ratio of the town-population to that of the country steadily rises ; industries and commerce are supplanting agriculture ; the production of food at home tends

* *Japan in the Beginning of the 20th Century*, p. 90.

to decrease, while the number of mouths rapidly increases ; in a word, the changes which have occurred in England are now in progress in Japan.

307. The broken character of the country and the absence of wide plains conduce to the small scale so characteristic of Japanese farming. But the work is done very thoroughly, so thoroughly that there is little room for expansion here ; and on the other hand there are slack seasons when the farmer's family is available for subsidiary occupations. These, therefore, possess a double importance. Most valuable of them all is the production of silk ; but the farming population also manufactures starch, macaroni, dried fruits, mats, cords, nets, baskets, straw raincoats, straw hats, straw sandals, matches, paper, oil, salt, charcoal, lime, camphor, and the like, besides spinning and weaving. Much of this, especially the straw-work, is done in winter.

308. Besides its small scale, Japanese farming has another characteristic ; it consists almost entirely of tillage. The quantity of live-stock is very small, but the farmers are becoming convinced of the necessity of availing themselves of the labour of beasts, especially in a hilly country, and one of small farms where large machines can hardly be used ; and the increase of stock-raising is a necessary corollary. Buddhist influence has militated against the practice of eating meat, and in 1902 there were only a million and a quarter of cattle in the country, with practically no sheep, goats, donkeys, or pigs ; even suitable pasture for the smaller animals scarcely exists at present, the ordinary bamboo-grass proving fatal to them. Of horses there were a million and a half, a number probably considerably reduced by the events of the last year. Until recently the Japanese have looked upon milk as a medicine rather than as a drink, and in 1900 there were less than 24,000 milch cows, or barely one to 2,000 people. These are commonly kept under shelter, and are seldom to be seen in the fields ; but bulls and barren cows are used for transport. Sheep and goats and pigs are rarely to be seen, unless at the

agricultural schools, where a pair or two are usually kept for the information of the students. One consequence of this dearth of animals is that night-soil is the universal fertiliser.

Crops, taxes,
and wages.

309. The value of the arable land is estimated at above 700 millions sterling, and that of the total yearly crop at about 100 millions, towards which rice contributes 40 millions. The gross value of the crops of wheat, barley, and rye, is estimated at 12 millions; that of silk-cocoons at 9 millions; and that of cured tea at nearly one million. The ordinary land-tax amounts to $3\frac{1}{3}$ per cent. of the assessed value, and supplied until recently the greater part of the national revenue. When labourers are hired, they often live with their employer, who gives them clothes as well as board; sometimes they attend to the employer's work and their own on alternate days. Lads are also engaged for periods of from 5 to 7 years, receiving their board and clothes, but rarely any regular wages. The wages of day-labourers vary, according as they bring their own food or not. The following were the average wages in 1901 (from *Japan in the Beginning of the 20th Century*, p. 115):—

	Males.	Females.
Day-labourer on farm	32 <i>sen</i>	20 <i>sen</i>
" for sericulture	33 "	19 $\frac{1}{2}$ "
Operative for reeling silk	20 "
Farm-labourer by year, with board	31·82 <i>yen</i>	17 <i>yen</i>

Four *sen* are equivalent to one penny or one anna; the *yen* is two shillings. The wages of females have doubled, or more than doubled, since 1887. On the other side, the income of a rich farmer was estimated by my interpreter and some other Japanese at from 300 to 400 *koku* of rice. The *koku* last year was worth 13 *yen*; so that his income would be from £390 to £520 a year, or from 500 to 650 rupees a month.

Efforts to im-
prove agricul-
ture.

310. It is about 30 years since Japan made her first attempts at a scientific treatment of agriculture. The Government established experimental farms, imported domestic animals, seeds, and implements, and tried its hand at cattle-breeding

and the like ; but most of these attempts ended in failure, for want of trained men to take charge of them. The authorities then turned to the training of such men ; the graduates of the agricultural college of Tokyo were set to carry out simple experiments with the help of farmers ; the results of these were so satisfactory that the farmers were deeply impressed with the importance of the scientific treatment of farming ; and by 1893 an Imperial Agricultural Station was firmly established.* In the next three years there were added to it nine branch stations, which carried out simple experiments, and tried to induce the farmers to establish similar stations for themselves, Government promising an annual subsidy of £15,000. The prefectures began to vie with each other in organising experimental stations, of which there are now 40. This enabled the imperial station to devote itself to scientific researches on a larger scale, and agriculture, agricultural chemistry, entomology, vegetable pathology, tobacco, horticulture, and stock breeding were all taken up, even though six of its branches were transferred to prefectures. At the same time fertilisers are tested, chemical analysis is carried out for the public, answers and lectures are given, the experiments entrusted to farmers are supervised, and researches are conducted on special problems. The prefectures maintain 40 experimental farms at a total cost of £40,000, each employing several experts, under the control of the local governor, and supervised by the Minister for Agriculture. Rural districts also maintain 110 experimental stations of a simpler type ; and there are others again belonging to towns, villages, or associations of farmers' sons. Further, there are 5 local agricultural institutes, the object of which is to impart to farmers' sons some elementary knowledge of the general principles of agriculture, veterinary science, farriery, etc. Much good, again, has been done by travelling lecturers, who stay in a place for a week or two, lecturing on soils, manures, implements, etc., and answering enquiries from the farmers of the

* *Japan in the Beginning of the 20th Century*, p. 159, etc.

district. They also look after the experimental farming, attend to local agricultural shows, and make themselves generally useful. It is found that the farmers are willing to listen to these men, of whom there are over 300. In 1903 there were 46 prefectural agricultural societies, spending over £5,000; 561 such societies in districts or cities, and over 10,000 in towns and villages. In the preceding year Government had granted about £1,500 to the prefectural societies, £6,700 to 35 local experimental stations, and £320 to 4 agricultural institutes; besides £4,500 to fishery laboratories and institutes, which in Japan come under the head of agriculture. All these arrangements are under the control of the Ministry of Agriculture.

Institutions
for agricul-
tural educa-
tion.

311. Coming now to agricultural education proper, namely, that imparted under the auspices of the Department of Education, we find institutions of three grades, elementary, secondary, and advanced. Under the first head there are 503 supplementary agricultural schools, and 49 of class B; under the second there are 57 schools of class A, together with a secondary course in the Sapporo school; whilst for advanced instruction there are three Government institutions, the Sapporo school, the Morioka school, and the college of agriculture at Tokyo. The higher primary schools have recently been ordered to include either agriculture, commerce, or manual work in their curriculum, but this may be regarded as part of the general course rather than as special training; it is almost entirely from books, very few schools having any ground available. This teaching is given to young boys in order to interest them in the land, rather than for the sake of any positive information; the other elementary institutions mentioned above aim at imparting elementary agricultural knowledge to those who have completed their primary education. The secondary institutions are intended to give a scientific and practical training to the future farmers of the middle class. As most of the students here are farmers' sons, and as 80 per cent. of them return to the farms, it is hoped that the results of the training will be seen when they themselves come into possession.

Others become teachers, and some join experimental stations, or go round the villages, giving instruction. The graduates of the higher institutions mostly become teachers, or engage in research.

312. It may be asked whether these various efforts have made any impression on the conservatism of the farmers. To this question a hopeful answer was generally given; round Tokyo, at any rate, better crops are now grown; and though the farmers in some parts may be slower to receive or act on new ideas, still they are found to be willing to learn whether from their own sons or from itinerant teachers. As an example there may be quoted the farmers of a certain district, who have been led by their school-taught sons to wage war at night, by means of lamps, against certain destructive moths. Some districts speak of "much improvement," and none are despondent. It is indeed complained that foreign implements are often too big, or too expensive, to suit the Japanese farmer; or that they require horses, which he has not got; and also that most of the books on agriculture published during the past 15 years have been written in too learned a style for the farmers to understand them. But I gather from a notice in the *Japan Mail* that there have recently been published two volumes of *Steps to the Study of Agriculture*, written in non-technical language which should be intelligible to anyone who can read a newspaper, and that the peasants, as a class, are not prejudiced against agricultural reform, seems to be generally admitted.

Effects produced.

313. Supplementary agricultural schools are 503 in number, but some of these probably deal with sericulture, marine industries, and other matters loosely included under the name. Moreover, it may be doubted whether all of them introduce any technical matter at all; for, as already stated, in one prefecture, at least, it was said that they were "agricultural" only in the sense of being attended by boys of the agricultural class.

Supplementary agricultural schools.

Schools of
class B.

314. Agricultural schools of class B which teach agriculture proper are 29 in number, with 111 teachers and 1,670 pupils; whilst 9 more combine other branches with it. All of these are public institutions and are aided from the national treasury, the maximum grant being £100. Their average annual expenditure is £315. Candidates for admission must be over 12, and usually come from the second year of the higher primary course; but I never succeeded in coming across any schools of this type, and so was not able to learn anything about their equipment, or the fees (if any) levied from the pupils.

Schools of
class A.

315. Agricultural education of middle grade is given in the schools of class A. Those which limit themselves to agriculture are 33 in number, with 326 teachers and 4,100 pupils; whilst 13 more combine other branches with it. The 32 public schools of agriculture only between them spend £55,000, or £1,700 apiece; the other 13 spend £36,000. Many farmers' sons, who would formerly have aspired to the university, now gravitate towards technical schools of middle grade; and most of their graduates are believed to be contributing to the promotion of agriculture, whether on their own account, or in the public service, or as teachers. The general arrangements of these schools are similar to those of middle schools, except that the winter is chosen for the long vacation. The main course of study commonly covers three years, and the number of weekly hours is not to exceed 30, besides practical work. The general subjects include morals, Japanese, mathematics, science, and drill; geography, history, political economy, and drawing may be added, as well as a foreign language, according to local requirements. The technical subjects are such as soils, manures, agricultural products, injurious insects, stock breeding, sericulture, etc., the cultivation of silk being included because so many farmers handle this as a by-product. There may also be a preparatory course, a post-graduate course, special courses of a simple character, and a supplementary course for those who desire to enter more advanced schools. Candidates for admission to the main course should be over 14, and should have completed the higher primary course. "

316. Two schools of this type were visited. The first was founded some ten years ago, but had recently been moved into better buildings, to which a dormitory was being added. The pupils numbered 130, with 11 teachers, mostly from the agricultural college or from Sapporo; 30 graduated last year, and 50 were admitted out of 110 applicants. The tuition fee was one shilling a month; and the annual cost of the school about £900. The pupils came from the higher primary school, and were about 15 at the time of entering; most of them were sons of farmers, and four-fifths returned to their farms. A few became teachers. The weekly hours were 28-29, besides 28 of practical work. The school possessed 40,000 square yards of land, which was utilised for vegetables, rice, wheat, barley, and pasture-grass. There was also a department for cultivating silkworms.

The second school is 25 years old, but was taken up by the prefecture only 5 years ago. It has now 16 teachers and 200 students, quarters being provided for 80. There are three departments—agriculture, silk, and veterinary science—and the annual cost is £1,500. The tuition is free; the authorities would like to levy a fee, but there is no fee in the industrial school (for a poorer class of boys) in the same town, and therefore they find a difficulty in doing so. About 40 graduated last year, and 70 were admitted out of twice the number of applicants. A little English was taught here, from special agricultural readers, as it was found useful for the names of tools, etc. The school possessed 2 cows, 5 horses, and some pigs; horses were brought there to be shod, or castrated. The surrounding land was planted by the different classes with various crops, duly labelled; and a number of the students were busy planting out rice seedlings. The course covered three years, and included algebra, geometry, and trigonometry, inorganic and organic chemistry, natural history, physics, etc.

Sapporo Agricultural School.

317. The highest agricultural education is given at Sapporo, History. Morioka, and the agricultural college at Tokyo. Sapporo is ,

the capital of the Hokkaido, the northernmost of the four chief islands of Japan. This island, formerly known as Yezo, was for long practically unknown to the Japanese, who looked upon it as a waste of snow and ice, fit only for the hairy Ainu and the bears they worshipped. But after the Restoration the Government turned their attention to the island, which really possesses great potential resources, and a colonial board was organised under General Kuroda to develop it. But the agricultural system of Japan was unsuited for a virgin country, and her knowledge of mining and forestry was primitive; General Kuroda, therefore, visited America, and took the advice of General Capron, the Commissioner of Agriculture at Washington, who recommended the institution of an agricultural 'college' at Sapporo. A school already instituted in Tokyo to train pioneers for the colony was transferred to Sapporo in 1875; and the Japanese Minister at Washington procured the services for a year of Dr. William Clark, President of the State Agricultural College at Amherst in Massachusetts, to organise the new institution. This was opened in 1876 with 24 students, the work being directed by Dr. Clark and two other Americans, under a Japanese figurehead. The number of students was limited to 50, who had to be attracted to Hokkaido by the promise of Government to bear all their expenses. Though called an agricultural school its aim was really much wider; it was designed to train men capable of administering and exploiting the island in all directions. The course of study, therefore, was more comprehensive than profound. After a year's work President Clark went home, but the majority of the staff continued to be Americans, and the instruction was given in English. Subsequently some of the hours devoted to English were transferred to other subjects, and the foreign element in the staff was gradually extinguished. It is amusing to read of the changes in the curriculum whereby "mental and moral science" was transformed into "agricultural history." The first transition was to the history of philosophy, but no suitable text-book of this being at hand it

was thought that the philosophy of history would do as well. This led by an easy transition to the political history of Europe, which gave place to general history, which in turn succumbed to agricultural history. It had by this time been decided to enlarge the school and to make the students bear their own expenses, loan-scholarships being, however, provided for the most deserving. But, owing to administrative changes, the school underwent several vicissitudes, and the convocation of an Imperial Diet, with its cry for economy, caused the budget to be cut down sadly. Thereupon an association of the alumni was formed to take over much of the land, until the school should be empowered to hold property of its own, and be to that extent raised above the fluctuations of politics. These patriotic young men urged that their *alma mater* was essential to the welfare of the country. "In an age like this, when people only talk, and politics and law engross the attention of the rising generation, and in a land like this, which hides within its bosom inexhaustible treasures, technical education is of inestimable value." Ultimately (1894) the school was placed under the Department of Education, and was thus allowed to receive permanent endowments of land, and to accumulate property of its own.

318. After 30 years of labour and expenditure, the Hokkaido is showing a handsome return in the results already achieved. What the school has done. The population is on its way to a million; hundreds of miles of railway have been opened; agriculture, stock-raising, mining, and fishing are all yielding valuable returns; harbours and other public works have been constructed. In all this the graduates of the agricultural school have played a prominent part. The original students, who were Government cadets, were immediately employed by Government; subsequently it was necessary for the graduates to find employment for themselves, and they spread all over Japan, many betaking themselves to journalism and authorship. At least one-third, however, of the graduates of the main course are to be found in Hokkaido itself, engaged in education, colonisation, fishery, forestry, agriculture, en-

gineering, and surveying; they take a leading part in the local affairs of Sapporo, and are active supporters of a variety of associations. It has been objected to the school that it has turned out few practical farmers; but this was never its sole, or even primary, object. Few of the graduates had capital enough to start farming on, and there were no large estates for them to manage on behalf of others; manual labour or the civil service were the only alternatives open to them.

Staff and
equipment.

319. The school has recently been moved to new buildings, picturesquely situated amongst meadows and fine elm-trees. The faculty consists of 15 professors, 13 assistant professors, and 9 lecturers and instructors. The professors are, mostly graduates of the institution who have been sent to Germany or America to complete their studies; such a man draws £120 a year at the outset. There is also an advisory board, consisting of two representatives of the Hokkaido government and from three to seven gentlemen of experience in agriculture and industry. The equipment of the school has been made as complete as possible. The library contains about 16,000 books in a brick building, besides which there is a wooden structure containing a general reading-room for 100 students, a special reading-room for the staff, and an office. Books may not be removed, except under special conditions; but the reading-room contains a number of works of reference and periodicals; it is lit by electricity, and is open from 7 a.m. to 9 p.m. The museum, which is open to the public also, is a large two-storied building, containing zoological, botanical, geological, archæological, and ethnological collections. The botanical garden, which is open twice a week to the public, and is visited by more than 100,000 persons in the year, covers 1,500,000 square feet, and consists of four portions—a garden of systematic botany, a flower garden, a nursery and experimental garden, and an arboretum. Lastly there are the farms, with an area of some 15,000 acres. Part of this is devoted to experiments and to the practical work of the students; part forms a model farm on a large scale; and part is split up into small holdings, let to 270 farmers. "

320. Besides the main course of four years there are (*a*) a preparatory course of two years, (*b*) courses of three years in agriculture, civil engineering, and forestry, of secondary grade or higher, (*c*) a shorter course of two years for practical farmers. These last in summer spend most of their time on the farm, receiving only two hours a week of class-room instruction. Candidates for admission to the preparatory course must have completed the middle school course, or its equivalent, and be over 17; for admission to the main course they must be at least 18, and have completed the preparatory course or its equivalent. A medical examination is held. About 130 are admitted annually out of three or four times the number of applicants. The present number of students is 395, thus divided—preparatory course, 84; main course, 85; practical agriculture, 93; civil engineering, 67; forestry, 66.

Organization.

321. The preparatory course includes the following subjects the annexed figures showing the number of weekly hours:—

Preparatory course.

First year.—Morals 1, Japanese and Chinese 4, English 6, German 3, modern history 2, algebra and trigonometry 4, physics 3, inorganic chemistry 3, drawing 4, drill 3 total 33

Second year.—Morals 1, Japanese and Chinese 3, English 6, German 3, equations and analytical geometry 4, surveying 3, zoology 2, botany 2, mineralogy and geology 2, physics 2, organic chemistry 3, drill 3 total 34.

322. The subjects of the main course are as follows:—

Main course.

First year.—General outline of agriculture, analytical chemistry, nutrition of plants, soils, implements, vegetable histology, cryptogamous plants, agricultural physics; these subjects are distributed between the three terms, receiving from 2 to 6 hours a week. The following are studied throughout the year experiments in plants (4 hours), in animals (4), comparative anatomy of animals (3), English (3), German (3). In all 31-32 hours, besides 2 or 3 in the laboratory, and 2 on the farm.

Second year.—Elements of political economy (3 hours) and general notions of law (2) are studied throughout the year. The remaining subjects are distributed, manures, improvement of soils, general crops, vegetable physiology and pathology, animal physiology and embryology, experiments in animals, entomology, agricultural engineering, history of agriculture. Total, 24-28 hours, besides practical work. At the end of the second year students must select as a practical course either agronomy, zootechny, agricultural economics and politics, agricultural chemistry,

vegetable pathology, or entomology and sericulture; these are taken up every afternoon except Saturday.

Third year.—Special crops (3 hours), horticulture (3.5), and agricultural economy (3.4), throughout the year. Other subjects (3.5 hours apiece): zootechny, physiology and hygiene of domestic animals, feeding of animals, sericulture, colonisation, elements of forestry, elements of fishery, bacteriology. Total, 24 hours, besides practical work.

Fourth year.—Zootechny (5 hours), elements of veterinary medicine (3), and agricultural politics (3), throughout the year; agricultural technology, 3 hours weekly for two terms. Total, 11-14 hours, besides practical work, and the thesis required for graduation, which must be based on individual investigation.

Examina-
tions.

323. Terminal examinations are held, the results being combined with the daily marks or other tests and averaged. Should the general average for the year be over 60, but the average for 3 subjects fall below 60, or that for 2 subjects below 50, the candidate must repeat the course for that year. At the time of my visit in June a terminal examination was in progress, two papers of two hours each being set daily; the English paper contained passages for translation from Dickens's *Christmas Carol*, and from the inevitable *Sherlock Holmes*. The *Vicar of Wakefield* is also read. For graduation a satisfactory thesis is essential. At the end of the third year the student must intimate a suitable subject to the director of the school, who then assigns a professor to supervise his investigations.

Finance.

324. The annual expenditure of the school is over £7,000; but it is hoped that it will eventually become self-supporting by means of fees and of the land with which Government has endowed it. The farm lands have an area of over 15,000 acres, whilst the forests extend over 130,000 acres. The annual tuition fee is £2 in the main course, 24 shillings for the preparatory course, and 30 shillings for the rest. The best students are, as elsewhere, exempted from fees, and some of them receive allowances or loans in addition, varying from £6 to £10 a year. All aided students must obtain the approval of the director as to their occupation for five years after graduation. The loan scholarships are provided by companies or

individuals, and their holders must follow the line of employment indicated by the founders for a period equal to that of the scholarship.

Morioka Higher School of Agriculture and Forestry.

325. The Morioka school was opened in 1903 to give higher education in agriculture, forestry, and veterinary medicine. Each main course covers 3 years, and there will also be post-graduate and elective courses. Candidates for admission must be over 17, and have completed the middle school course, or an agricultural course of class A, or their equivalent. The full number will be 270, *viz.*, three classes of 30 each in each department. A dormitory is provided for about 100. There are at present 10 professors, besides other instructors: three of the professors returned from Germany for the opening of the school, and three more were expected as soon as the classes were filled up. The students are drawn from the upper middle class of society, and are aged from 18 to 25. The agricultural graduates will undertake educational work, or else research at experimental stations; the forestry graduates will find employment under Government; the veterinary graduates will be employed as inspectors under local governments, or else undertake private practice. Agricultural and veterinary students learn English; forestry students learn German. The land and buildings for this school cost about £15,000; the current expenditure in 1904 was £4,000. The annual tuition fee is £2 for the main course. The buildings, laboratories, etc., are extensive, and equipped with a number of specimens and models. Some of these were obtained from Germany, but a number of anatomical models were made in Japan from designs prepared at the agricultural college of Tokyo. Germany (for agriculture in general) and France (for horse-breeding) are the models followed; it was almost painful to note the polite contempt with which the professors referred to the English neglect of agricultural education.

The Morioka school.

College of Agriculture, Tokyo University.

History.

326. This, the youngest of the six colleges of the imperial university, stands apart from the rest, six miles away on the outskirts of the city. It originated from two institutions, the first a "place for studying agriculture" opened in 1874 by the industrial board of the Home Department; the other a "place for experiments on plants and trees" opened in 1877 by the geographical bureau of the same Department. The former was turned into an agricultural college, the latter into a dendrological college, and both were transferred to the Department of Agriculture and Commerce. In 1886 they were amalgamated, and in 1890 the joint college was united to the imperial university. Since then it has received from the Government 825 acres of forest in one direction, 5,400 in another, and 58,000 acres in Hokkaido. An institute for the training of instructors in agriculture is now attached to it, and is attended for a year by primary school teachers who have to teach the subject. A rough estimate previously given puts the annual cost of the college at about £13,400, of which about £900 may be supposed to be recovered in fees.

Staff.

327. The staff in 1903 comprised 16 professors, 24 assistant professors (7 of whom were studying abroad), 14 lecturers, and 6 instructors in subsidiary courses. One professor was a German and four possessed foreign degrees. The subjects were distributed as follows:—

Professors.—Organic physics and meteorology, agriculture, agricultural politics and political economy; agricultural technology; agricultural chemistry, zoology, entomology, and sericulture (2); zootechny; veterinary medicine and surgery (3); veterinary anatomy, forestry (2), forest utilisation and forestry.

Assistant Professors.—Agriculture (3), agricultural chemistry and chemistry (4), geology and soils, zootechny, pathological anatomy and physiology, bacteriology, botany, forestry (3)

Lecturers.—Agricultural chemistry and chemistry (2), agricultural technology, fertilisers; horticulture (2); hippology; horse-shoeing; pharmacology; botany and botanical practice; forest laws; encyclopædia of laws; hygiene; pedagogics and ethics.

Subsidiary.—Agriculture, agricultural technology, agricultural politics and political economy, chemistry, mathematics and physics, forestry.

328. The college farm is divided into a field for farm Equipment.
 practice, an experimental farm, a garden for specimen crops, a
 garden for horticultural plants, and a field for profitable farming
 cultivated by tenants on two different systems. There are also
 an experimental garden for agricultural chemistry; a nursery
 garden for forest trees, including many exotics; a garden for
 specimen trees; a botanical garden; several laboratories and
 museums; an insect-house for rearing both useful and injurious
 insects; and a silkworm building and laboratory; besides
 the buildings of the veterinary department. The college further
 possesses a pomological garden and five forests. Three of
 these are in the main island and easily accessible, the others
 are in Hokkaido and Formosa. The first two are small and
 without trees; the third covers 5,400 acres, and supplies practi-
 cal instruction in forestry as well as the opportunity of a model
 of scientific forest management. About ten acres have been
 preserved as an example of primeval forest. A dormitory has
 been provided there for the students. The forest in Hokkaido
 covers nearly 58,000 acres, and has never been touched by the
 axe; but it is remote, and more suited for the studies of gra-
 duates and professors than for the undergraduates. Not much
 is known as yet of the college forest in Formosa, which covers
 144,000 acres.

329. The college, which can only be entered after a prepara-
 tory course of 3 years in a higher school, offers courses in Courses of
study and
examinations.
 agriculture, agricultural chemistry, forestry, and veterinary
 medicine, each lasting for three years. Their comparative
 popularity may be seen from the list of graduates for ten years,
 the first producing 73, the second 50, the third 49, and the
 fourth 30. The course in agriculture includes much the same
 subjects as at Sapporo, about 22 hours being provided in the
 week, besides two half-days for laboratory and farm practice.
 This amount is reduced to 21 hours in the second year, and to
 16 in the third, the last term of which is mainly devoted to the
 graduation thesis. The course in agricultural chemistry
 provides from 10 to 22 hours of class-work, according to the

year; and here also a thesis is required. Annual examinations are held, the marks are averaged as in other cases, and the standard is similar, *viz.*, 50 per cent. in each subject, and 60 per cent. of the total.

Subsidiary
courses.

330. Subsidiary courses of a lower standard are given in agriculture, forestry, and veterinary medicine to graduates of middle schools, or to those who, being over 17, come up to the same standard, and are physically fit. In the case of agriculture the candidate must own 12 acres of cultivated land or 37 of uncultivated, or must be the son or brother of some one who does. Such candidates are admitted on probation to work on the farm; and if they work satisfactorily, are then admitted to the course in September. Each course extends over 3 years; the entrance examination fee is 4 shillings, and the annual tuition fee £2.

Students and
graduates.

331. In 1903 the college had 406 students, distributed as follows:—agriculture, 28; agricultural chemistry, 25; forestry, 43; veterinary medicine, 9; elective courses, 10; subsidiary agriculture, 105; subsidiary forestry, 117; subsidiary veterinary, 69. In addition there were 16 pursuing advanced studies in "University Hall." The regular tuition fee is 50 shillings a year, and there are no examination fees. Up to 1901 the college had graduated 481 students, or nearly 11 per cent. of the total number graduated at Tokyo.

II.—Sericulture.

The silk
industry.

332. The cultivation of silk has become so valuable a subsidiary to the farmer that some instruction in it is frequently included in general agricultural courses. The silkworm is said to have been introduced from China about 200 A. D., and subsequently a number of Chinese silk-weavers were naturalised and distributed about the country. But the scientific rearing of the worms dates only from the Vienna Exhibition of 1872, when some Japanese who attended it took the opportunity to acquaint themselves with scientific sericulture as practised in Austria and Italy; and in consequence the Japanese Government opened silkworm laboratories. Young men were sent up

from various parts to be instructed in the art of raising the worms, and itinerant instructors were employed by the provinces most interested. In 1902 two-and-a-half million families were engaged in rearing the worms, and the manufacturers of raw silk numbered 414,000. As the rearing lasts only for 30 or 40 days it is commonly carried on as a subsidiary industry, the tendency now being to raise about 70 per cent. of the total crop in spring, and the rest in two smaller crops in summer and autumn. The silk farmer is put to little expense for rent or wages, as he utilises the rooms of his own house, and the services of his own family. At these seasons the shallow baskets full of wriggling caterpillars are in evidence everywhere; and guests have been turned away from inns because all the rooms were occupied by silkworms. The old method of hand-reeling produced a coarse silk, unfit for the foreign market; but Government established a model filature under a French expert, which proved very successful, and machine or frame-reeling have been widely substituted. The value of the raw silk exported in 1872 was £500,000; this grew to £1,600,000 in 1882, to £3,600,000 in 1892, and to over £7,000,000 in 1902.* The effect produced by the development of this industry has been remarkable; districts previously marked by a poverty-stricken or even squalid appearance have become smiling and prosperous; the people are well off, and the children are gladly sent to school, except during the few busiest days, when the schools usually give them a brief holiday.

333. Instruction in sericulture is provided in a number of agricultural schools, as well as in those for sericulture only. The lowest grade is represented by schools of class B; six of these, with 20 teachers and 276 pupils, are for silk alone, while 2 others combine the subject with agriculture. More advanced instruction is given in agricultural schools of class A, 6 of which (with 835 pupils) teach this subject only, and 3 com-

Instruction in
sericulture.

* *Japan in the Beginning of the 20th Century*, pp 133-150.

bine it with others. One of these schools which was visited had 90 students and 12 teachers; it belonged to the prefecture, and spent £1,200 a year, no tuition fee being charged. Most of the pupils were sons of farmers and silk-growers, but a few came from the town. Of the graduates most returned to their farms, and a few became teachers; some took up itinerant work, visiting the villagers, who were quite willing to be taught better methods. Some of the villagers, indeed, are attracted to the school itself; a man of 28 was in attendance at the time of my visit, though the general age was from 15 to 18. The course lasts 3 years, 30 students being admitted each year out of about 100 applicants, and all are accommodated in a dormitory. No foreign language is taught at this school.

More advanced work is done at the higher agricultural schools, and at the agricultural college at Tokyo, as also in some of the numerous experimental stations, and in two higher sericultural schools at Tokyo and Kyoto. These give instruction in sericulture, conduct experiments, provide public lectures, distribute eggs, and answer queries. They have a main course of 2 years, and special practical courses of 5 months; and more than a thousand students have passed through them.

III.—Aquatic Products.

Aquatic industries.

334. The geographical position of Japan, her enormous coastline, and the liking of her population for fish and seaweed, have made marine products the source of a most important industry. In addition, the lakes and rivers of Japan abound with fish, the number of edible varieties, fresh or salt-water, totalling nearly 400. There are 900,000 families engaged in fishing or other marine industries; and in 1900 the takes of fish were valued at over 5 millions sterling, and the miscellaneous marine products (dried fish, fish oil, seaweed, etc.) at over three millions. Pisciculture is now carried on extensively both in fresh water and in the sea, the value of the fish artificially cultivated being put at £74,000. The refining of salt, again, from sea-water employs over 100,000 people, and the output is worth nearly a million.

Two model refineries were established by Government in 1898; and it has been proposed to constitute a Government monopoly of salt in connection with the present war-taxation. In 1887 local treasuries spent £153 on fisheries, but in 1901 as much as £36,000. Of this amount £23,500 went to fishery experimental laboratories and training schools, which also participate in the State aid to agricultural education to the extent of £4,500.* I wrote to an authority on technical education to enquire how far these efforts to develop the fishing industry rested on any scientific investigation of the surrounding sea, or of the habitats and habits of the various kinds of fish; but the answer returned was extremely vague. "In the fishery schools," it ran, "we are endeavouring to give scientific instruction about fisheries; but in those elementary schools which are placed in fishing villages we do not expect them to go deeply into scientific investigations." From the misunderstanding or ignoring of my question it might be inferred that no such investigation had been carried out, and that the location of the schools and the methods of instruction were determined only by local experience and tradition, had I not read somewhere a glowing reference to the thoroughness with which the Japanese Government had carried out this very enquiry. Perhaps, however, the results were not communicated to the Educational Department.

335. The progress of fishery education has been slow compared with that of agricultural education proper. About 1889 a course of this nature was introduced into the agricultural college at Tokyo, but it was soon discontinued. Much was done by the training school of the Japan Fishery Association, which in 1897 became a Government institution. In 1901 regulations were issued for "schools of aquatic products," together with hints on the essential points of instruction. Under the heading of agricultural schools of class B we now find 4 schools of fishery, with 10 teachers and 134 pupils; also 2 others combining fishery with agriculture. Of middle grade

* *Japan in the Beginning of the 20th Century*, pp. 329-378.

there are 3 schools of fishery, with 19 teachers and 219 pupils, expending nearly £2,800; and one more which combines this with other subjects. The general subjects taught in these schools are morals, Japanese, mathematics, geography, physics, chemistry, natural science, drawing, customs and regulations connected with fishery, political economy, and drill; but these may be reduced or expanded according to circumstances. *The technical subjects are such as these:—outlines of aquatic products, fisheries, aquatic animals and plants, and the rearing of them, navigation, management of boats, meteorology, oceanography, first aid to the sick or wounded, bacteriology, etc. Out of these may be constructed courses in fishery, marine industries, or pisciculture. Among the higher institutions the Sapporo agricultural school includes the elements of fishery in its main course, and pisciculture is an optional subject in the college of agriculture at Tokyo; but the main institution of this kind is the fishery school under the Department of Agriculture and Commerce. A prominent industry in most of these schools is that of canning articles of food. The output of tinned foods in Japan was valued at £32,000 in 1901, and the present war has given an enormous impetus to this business.

Examples of
schools.

336. Two fishery schools were visited. One seemed almost wholly industrial; little class-work was done, and that was in the form of notes dictated by the director; but fishing was taught under regular fishermen, and canning was done on the premises. The pisciculture branch had been closed. The school had been open 5 years, and belonged to a prefecture; the pupils come at 17 or 18 for a course of one year. Twenty or more had been in attendance at once, but when visited the school had only 12 boys and 2 girls. For these there were 3 teachers and 2 assistants, besides the director. Fish, fruit, and meat were purchased for canning, the ordinary expenditure being about £1,000 a year. This year, however, they were spending about £4,000 on large supplies for the army. Circumstances compelled me to subsist for a time on some of their tinned beef, which proved better than some purchased from an

ordinary commercial house. This school has turned out about 100 graduates, some of whom can goods in their own houses; those who cannot afford to purchase the necessary machinery obtain the sheets of tin, and send them over to the school for the pupils to cut up into tins.

The other school visited was also a prefectural one, but of a higher grade, having a secondary course extending over 3 years, and including morals, science, botany, zoology, mineralogy, and geography, besides fishing, canning, and breeding. For fishing they go out to sea; the breeding is carried on at a lake a mile and a half off; the canning is done at the school, fish, mushrooms, and other comestibles being bought for the purpose. About £50 were earned by the sale of these last year. The school was intended for fisher-boys only, but sons of farmers and townsfolk now attend it as well; 50 are admitted each year, and there are quarters for 50 out of the total of 150 boys. No fee is charged for tuition. The staff consists of 10 teachers and 3 industrial assistants; the annual cost is about £800. Orders for the army were being carried out; and graduates of the school are employed in private canning factories along the coast, but some of the products of these have no great reputation locally.

IV.—Veterinary Science.

337. In old Japan the only veterinary surgeons were the Veterinary dealers in horses and cattle, who used to puncture the animals science in Japan, with needles from time to time, and apply other simple methods of treatment. "They were, of course, up to the trick of cheating in transaction of beasts, just as practised by horse-dealers of other countries."* After the Restoration a French military veterinary surgeon was engaged by the army, and licensing rules were made; but about 6,000 persons were allowed to continue to practise in virtue of their previous experience. Since 1890, however, only graduates of recognised schools, or

* *Japan in the Beginning of the 20th Century*, p. 198.

those who have passed an examination, have received licences; except that where the number of these is insufficient, provisional licences for a limited number of years may be granted to men of sufficient experience. In 1900 there were 2,545 veterinary surgeons with regular licences, and 1,713 with provisional. The practice of shoeing horses was unknown in Japan until introduced from the West, and even now numerous horses and cattle may be seen on the roads wearing the straw-shoes of the country; but regular examinations in farriery are held, and licences issued to those who are qualified.

Veterinary
instruction.

338. The elements of veterinary science may be taught in agricultural schools of class B, but only one veterinary school of this grade seems to exist, a private one with 4 teachers and 35 pupils. Under class A 8 schools are returned as teaching this subject along with agriculture or fishery. It is also included in the secondary agricultural course at Sapporo, and in the main course, to the extent of two or three hours weekly in one year. Advanced instruction is provided in the higher agricultural school at Morioka, which has a principal course in the subject, lasting for 3 years; and in the college of agriculture at Tokyo, which offers a similar course for those who have passed through a higher school, and a subsidiary course, also of 3 years, for graduates of middle schools. For both of these a graduation examination is held at the end of the third year on the chief subjects studied, *viz.*, anatomy, physiology, pharmacology, pathology, surgery, pathological anatomy, practical horse-shoeing, hospital practice, and ambulatory clinics. The term, year, and examination marks are averaged, and a uniform standard of 60 per cent. expected in every subject. If a single mark is between 50 and 60, the candidate must continue in the same class for another year; whilst, if two marks are below 60, or one below 50, the student is dismissed, even though his general average be over 60. These somewhat exacting requirements must be judged by what one knows of Japanese examinations in general.

V.—Forestry.

339. The forest wealth of Japan is enormous, 59 per cent. ^{Forests in Japan.} of the whole area being occupied by forests, even after much ruthless clearing. The vast forests of Hokkaido contain numerous varieties of useful timber trees, and are as yet little touched; whilst Formosa is the chief source of the world's supply of camphor, Japan itself coming next. In early times the forests were neglected and often devastated, but under the Tokugawa Shoguns rigorous measures were taken for their protection.* Some were maintained intact to protect the head-waters of rivers, to guard against landslips or excessive snowfalls, or to shelter water and fish; others were utilised for timber and fuel, but under strict rules, since every daimyo, for military reasons, sought to make his territory self-sufficient. "Whatever advantages Japan now enjoys in the matter of forests, she owes to this jealous guard kept over her forests of old by the feudal princes." Unhappily these despotic rules fell to the ground with the feudal system, and, during the somewhat chaotic period which followed, the new private owners, excited by the prospect of immediate gain, practised much reckless deforestation. Even scenes consecrated by the poetry and æsthetic admiration of generations were ruthlessly despoiled on flimsy pretexts, and for the pettiest gain, in a manner calculated to make one sceptical about that general artistic sense of the Japanese on which so much has been written. One effect of this furious felling is seen in the bare dreary hills which beset so much of the Inland Sea; another in the gradual raising of many river beds, so as to interfere with the drainage of the rice fields, and to cause floods in time of heavy rain. The Government has, in consequence, been obliged to legislate for the protection of the forests at the head-waters of rivers. There has, of course, been an enormous increase in the demand for timber and fuel for industrial and mining purposes, for buildings, for railway sleepers, for telegraph poles, for the manufac-

* *Japan in the Beginning of the 20th Century*, p. 225, etc.

ture of paper, and for many other purposes; the new match industry alone employs several thousand hands, and its exports are worth £740,000. Moreover, a great deal of timber is exported to China and Korea. The cutting induced by this demand has been so injudicious as to destroy the productive capacity of many forests; those of one district, for instance, seem to have been exhausted by the supply of sleepers to the Tokaido Railway, which now imports its wood from Hokkaido. At present the forests are divided into those for utilisation and those for protection (less than $\frac{1}{23}$ of the whole), the latter being subdivided into "absolute" and "ordinary;" The utilisation forests are left to their owners to be managed, as they please; and whilst those belonging to the State and to the Imperial Household are now being treated on scientific lines, those in the hands of private owners are in an unsatisfactory condition. The State forests, at any rate, are expected to yield a large revenue in another century or so. The Japanese do not, as a rule, thin out trees after the European method; they prefer to shave a whole area, such as a hill side, at once, so that the timber may be rolled to the bottom without impediment, after which the area should be replanted and left alone.

Instruction
in forestry.

340. For some time the Tokyo dendrological school (now merged in the college of agriculture) was the only institution giving instruction in forestry; but now there are 62 such, besides a training school under the Department of Agriculture. This last is connected with an experimental station; its course including forestry, surveying, and topographical drawing. Of the other schools, 48 are said to "impart a general knowledge of forestry subsidiary to some form of practical education, secondary or primary,"* and 6 belong to the agricultural schools of class B. Secondary instruction is imparted in 5 schools of class A; the only one which teaches forestry alone has 72 pupils and 5 teachers, and costs about £800 a year. A course of a more advanced character is offered at Sapporo to graduates of

* *Japan in the Beginning of the 20th Century*, p. 284.

middle schools, the subjects being algebra, geometry, trigonometry, analytical geometry, forest-mathematics, surveying, drawing, physics and meteorology, chemistry, geology, botany, zoology, hunting, agriculture, silviculture, forest utilisation, technology, and protection, political economy and finance, elements of law, forest policy and administration, forest management, and German. The course covers 3 years.

The higher school of agriculture and forestry at Morioka offers a principal course of forestry, very similar to the above, and also extending over 3 years; the foreign language studied is German. This school has as yet no forests of its own.

Lastly, the college of agriculture at Tokyo offers both a main and a subsidiary course in forestry, each covering 3 years; the former is open to the graduates of higher schools, the latter to those of middle schools. The general arrangements have been described under the head of agriculture, as well as the facilities afforded for practical work in the splendid forests owned by the college.

Chapter X.—TECHNICAL EDUCATION—(*continued*).

VI.—Commerce.

341. "Geography," says Marquis Ito, "has decreed that Japan shall be a commercial nation." In the 16th century their natural love of the sea and of adventure was stimulated by the advent of Europeans, with their superior models of ships and their firearms; and many voyages, piratical or commercial, were undertaken by the Japanese to the coasts of China, the Philippines, the Malay Islands, Siam, and perhaps even further. Then came the forcible closing of the country; the Government restricted them to small junks of an inferior type, and the nascent commercial energies of the nation were pent up until our own generation, when they burst forth with all the energy of a compressed spring. The aptitude for trade which they now display, "like many another, is no sudden acquisition, nor a result merely of the revolution through which they have recently passed. It is the outcome of long and careful training

Indigenous
commercial
system,

in the business habits and methods of their own isolated commercial world, a world which, though restricted, was for the time amply large enough to put business capacity to the test."* Mr. Knapp goes on to show that nearly every commercial organisation or device on which the West prides itself was independently evolved by the Japanese during their period of seclusion. It might indeed be supposed that the example of the little Dutch colony at Nagasaki had some influence on this ; but I was assured in Japan that this was not the case. In the course of the 18th century business came to be controlled almost entirely by guilds and corporations. "The guild of the bankers was organised at Osaka about 1660, the only European districts having at that time a real banking system being the commercial towns of Italy. These banks in Japan lacked none of the essential features of our own. They received on deposit, honoured cheques, issued notes, negotiated bills of exchange, and discounted bills drawn against merchandise."† The supplementary media of exchange were indeed forced upon the Japanese by the mountainous character of their country, and the tediousness of coasting voyages. Mr. Knapp tells us further that the shipowners and exporters of Osaka and Yedo have had a mutual system of marine insurance for two centuries or more, as well as a system of inspecting, classifying, and registering vessels. Our stock exchange was also anticipated by a rice exchange, with the same external features, and even the same minor and irregular accompaniments. All this both indicates the strength of the commercial instincts of Japan, and explains the rapidity of her recent development on these lines, when once artificial restrictions were removed.

Rise of
commercial
education.

342. In feudal Japan the only education available for merchants and tradesmen was that of the *terakoya* already described, with its elements of writing, reading and arithmetic ; the rest of their business they learned through a system of apprenticeship by which they were received into their master's

* Knapp, *Feudal and Modern Japan*, i. 121.

† Knapp, i. 140.

family, and boarded, lodged, and clothed by him there. Wages were not paid until the apprentice had fully learned his work, when his employer either retained his services on a salary, or else enabled him to start in business on his own account. In those days education of any more advanced kind was despised as useless, if not positively injurious; and this feeling is said to survive in some of those who have grown rich through foreign trade in the open ports. Uneducated but successful themselves, they do not see much use for education in others. Such ideas, however, are likely to die out before long. The enormous commercial expansion of Japan,* and her entry upon the field of international competition, have led to close attention being paid to the development of commercial as well as of general education. The necessity for this was first perceived by Mr. (afterwards Viscount) Mori. The time which he spent in London convinced him, though a *samurai*, of the importance of getting young men to devote themselves to a commercial training and a commercial career, instead of to law and literature; and after being Japanese Minister at Washington, he opened a private business school in Tokyo. A little later he was sent as Minister to China, and his school was taken up by Mr. Jiro Yano, another *samurai*, who had visited Europe and America. To this work Mr. Yano devoted himself for 18 years, in spite of old custom, popular prejudices, and more lucrative prospects. He engaged English, American, and Belgian teachers, and in time commercial firms began to vie with each other in employing his graduates. He resigned in 1893, when a small school with about 20 pupils had grown into a set of large brick buildings containing about 1,000, the present higher commercial school of Tokyo. There were then 11 other commercial schools of a lower grade, with nearly 1,600 students; now there are 50, with 665 teachers and over 11,000 students. In addition, promising young men are yearly selected from those recommended by leading men of business, etc., and are sent abroad for prac-

* A foreign trade worth £3,300,000 in 1869 had grown to £53,000,000 by 1902.

tical work in commercial establishments, with a view to the expansion of the foreign trade of Japan.

Popular
attitude to
commercial
schools.

343. In Japan, as in America, the popular attitude towards these schools has completely changed; instead of being regarded with disfavour, their graduates are now readily employed, are even sought out before graduation. A foreign merchant informed me that he invariably got his clerks now from commercial schools; in six years he had had about a hundred of them, of whom only one had turned out badly. The director of such a school is naturally careful in his recommendations, especially when he is dealing with a foreigner; and if he understands properly what is wanted, he can usually be trusted to find a suitable man. My informant told me that now he never advertised for a clerk, or took on one who had lost his last place, for reasons that could probably never be really ascertained; instead, he told one of his men to pick a boy from the commercial school from which the clerk himself had come. Then the senior looks after the junior, and the junior is anxious to act honourably by the man who had selected him; and this arrangement had proved perfectly satisfactory. It is scarcely necessary to remark on the difference of the ordinary British employer's attitude towards those who have had an advanced education of any sort. If this be of a commercial character, he tells you that he cares only for a clerk of general education; that every house has its own ways which can only be learned in it; and that the lessons of the commercial school have simply to be unlearned. On the other hand, if it is general education that is concerned, I have heard Europeans in India declare that they would never have a university graduate in their offices, the reason generally assigned being that graduates are both conceited and useless. So far as the latter objection has a real foundation in the curricula of our universities, it is one that the latter might well seek to remedy, if business men would condescend to agree on the sort of man that they want. As for conceit, it is no doubt very wrong for a young man to be conceited, but after all the failing is not confined to Indian B.A.'s; and it may be suspected that

the so-called "conceit" is often only that measure of self-respect and independence which the student has learned to acquire in a well-conducted college. And how often does an employer, public or private, apply directly to the principal of a school or college to recommend a man for a given post?

344. "Commerce" enters into general education to the extent that it is often taught as an additional subject in the higher primary schools of towns. But at present we are concerned only with special or technical commercial training. To organise this professors were at first obtained from America, and the American system was followed; subsequently Belgian methods gained an ascendancy. The difference I understand to be this, that in America, after a full general course, a man takes a purely commercial course for six months or a year; whereas in Belgium, after less general education, he takes a combined general and commercial course for at least two years. In Japan this period has (owing to the greater difficulties encountered by the students) been extended to 3 or 4 years; but some think that there is room for both systems.

345. Commercial education is given in institutions of three grades—elementary, middle, and advanced. The first is represented by 82 supplementary commercial schools, with nearly 6,000 pupils, and by 17 commercial schools of class B, with nearly 1,500; the middle grade is given in 41 schools of class A, with nearly 10,000 pupils; whilst the highest grade is found in the higher commercial schools of Tokyo and Kobe. It is perhaps worthy of note that none of the public schools, at least, seem to teach shorthand, typewriting, etc., so often associated with "commercial" work elsewhere; in fact, a commercial school teacher could not tell me of any institution where shorthand or typewriting could be learned, unless it was "from the missionaries."

346. Supplementary schools for commerce are held, some by day, and others by night. A day school visited had 146 boys and 4 teachers, its annual cost being £120. The pupils were

drawn from the ordinary primary schools, they studied commercial subjects, together with a little English, for 3 years, and paid from 4 to 6 pence a month. The school was unable to accommodate all the applicants; and in the six years of its existence had turned out 80 graduates, who were readily employed as apprentices in shops and banks. At the time of my visit a teacher was droning out something from a Japanese book, in an interminable singsong, to a very listless class; there seemed to be no explanation of the book, and one could only hope that the method of instruction was better than it sounded. Night schools are sometimes held in the buildings of commercial schools of middle grade, the hours being from 7 to 10 p. m. One of these was attended by 300 apprentices and shopboys, who, it was admitted, were probably rather sleepy; ordinary commercial subjects were taught by graduates of the main school. Another, attached to a large private school, was attended by 350 boys, of whom only 10 per cent. were thought to be too sleepy to profit by it. The fee here was 2s. 6d. a month. A third night school had a course of 18 months, divided into 3 classes of 6 months apiece. The pupils were aged from 17 to 18, and already in employment; about 100 attended, paying 2 shillings a month, and were said to be very keen on their work, grumbling if a teacher happened to be absent. The teachers were drawn partly from the staff of the main school, partly from men actually engaged in business; and the school was open for 3 hours on 5 nights in the week, the subjects being mainly English and book-keeping.

Schools of
class B.

347. In commercial schools of class B the course extends over not more than 3 years, and includes morals, Japanese, arithmetic, geography, book-keeping, commerce, and drill; to which other subjects may be added if necessary. The number of weekly hours may not exceed 30. Candidates for admission should be over 12, and have completed two years of the higher primary course. There are 17 schools of this class, with 45 teachers and 1,500 pupils; they expend £4,800, or £284 per school, some of them being aided from the national treasury.

Schools of this kind seem rather difficult to find, even the authorities being uncertain as to their whereabouts; at least, the officials of Tokyo prefecture sent me a long way to a school which they positively declared to be of this nature, but which turned out to be of class A after all. Fortunately, however, one of the teachers had taught in two B schools, and was able to tell me that the work for two years was similar to that of the third and fourth years of the higher primary course, some English and commercial work being included, whilst one teacher taught a little algebra and geometry privately. For the third year the subjects were morals, Japanese, mathematics, foreign geography, and English; the rest of the time being devoted to business subjects and practical work. For this last some of the boys pretended to be employed in shops, others in banks, others in godowns. About 100 boys attended each school, paying a shilling a month; the graduates found work at from 24 to 30 shillings a month. But schools of this class are said to differ considerably in their arrangements, and the tendency is to develop them into middle-grade schools.

348. Commercial education of middle grade is given in Schools of class A. schools of class A, the first of which was founded in 1884. In 1897 there were only 13, with 3,500 pupils, whereas now there are 41, with 620 teachers and nearly 16,000 pupils. Of these 34 are public schools, with an average strength of 250, and expenditure of £1,637; whilst the 7 private schools have on an average 200 pupils, and cost £778. A good example of this class is the commercial academy at Nagoya, founded by the prefecture in 1884, but transferred in 1890 to the municipality.

349. The new buildings of this school cost £5,000; it is Nagoya commercial academy. hoped to add a dormitory, but in the meantime the director boards in his own house 26 boys from a distance. The land belonged to the city; books have cost £400, furniture and samples about £1,000, up to date. The buildings are decorated with relics of the China War, the offerings of alumni, to which many of the present war may be expected to be added; the school issues a set of picture post-cards, and is evidently proud of

itself and its history. Of the students 45 per cent. come from Nagoya itself, 33 from the prefecture, and the rest from outside. Candidates for admission to the preparatory course must be over 13, and have completed the third year of the higher primary course; they are examined in Japanese and arithmetic, and the studies and weekly hours are:—morals 2, Japanese 7, arithmetic 5, geography and history 3, drawing 3, English*7, drill 3; total 30 hours. The annual fee is 24 shillings.

For the main course candidates must be over 14, and have completed the full higher primary course, or the second year of the middle-school course, or else the preparatory commercial course; 90 per cent. of them follow this last course. Here also the annual fee is 24 shillings, and the studies are as follows:—

First year.—Morals, 2 hours; Japanese, 6; commercial and mental arithmetic, algebra, and abacus, 5; commercial geography and history, 4, general book-keeping, 3, general principles of commerce (laws and regulations), 2; English, 8; drill, 3. Total, 33 hours.

Second year.—Morals, 2; Japanese, 3; algebra, geometry, abacus, and mental arithmetic, 4, physics and chemistry, 4, bank book-keeping, 4, political economy, 3; general principles of commerce (speculative transactions), 2; English, 8; drill, 3. Total, 33 hours.

Third year.—Book-keeping as in Government offices, workshops, etc., and entry in English, 4; political economy, 3; commercial products, 2; general principles of commerce (practical application), 8, contract and commercial law, 4; English, 9; drill, 3. Total, 33 hours.

Five examinations are held yearly, and the results averaged. Part of the English work is taken by an American (formerly employed in a business-house in Chicago) and his daughter. The lady teaches pronunciation, reading, and conversation to the first-year class; her father the same to the second year. In the third year this gentleman takes the class through one complete import and one complete export transaction, each involving a formidable file of papers. The letters supposed to be received are printed, so that the student may clearly distinguish them in his mind from those which he himself sends out. Thus at the end of the time each student possesses a complete set of papers relating to that transaction, and is able to grasp the machinery,

even though he may not be able to write very good English for want of sufficient practice.

This school has also a post-graduate course of one year, the fee for which is 48 shillings, and which includes political economy and statistics, 2 hours; law, 2; foreign practice and commercial usages, 12; English, 12; and drill, 3. In April 1903 there were only 3 students in this course, against 497 in the main course, and 292 in the preparatory. About one-third are said to drop off from poverty or dullness, but a thousand or so have been graduated in all. There is a constant demand for them, and the director could place far more if they were available; they earn from 30 to 40 shillings a month to start with, and from £5 to £6 after three years.

The Nagoya school thus covers 5 years with its three courses, which between them account for 800 pupils. In addition there are 400 more following an "easy course," corresponding more or less to that of schools of class B. For these 1,200 boys there are 44 teachers, and the school budget for 1903 was balanced as follows :—

Expenditure.—Salaries, £1,814; supplies, £271; repairs, £175; miscellaneous, £99. Total, £2,359.

Income.—City tax, £909; prefectural tax, £300; tuition fees, £1,143; miscellaneous, £7. Total, £2,359.

350. Appended are a few notes on other schools of this grade. Other examples

(1) A municipal school, with 500 boys and 17 teachers, costing £2,000 a year. Annual fee 24 shillings, to be raised to 44. About 120 are admitted out of 200 applicants, after an examination in English, Chinese, and arithmetic; and about 50 graduate after a course of five years. The school was divided into 9 classes, the lowest containing 70 boys, admittedly too many. Two of the teachers were foreigners, who took 19 hours weekly apiece. A room was fitted up with desks and counters for "practical" business, both domestic and foreign; another large room contained a commercial museum; and there was a central hall, with the emperor's picture in a sort of shrine at one end.

(2) A public school, with 286 boys and 13 teachers, spending £1,300, said to be not enough for efficiency; 90 were admitted out of 155 applicants, and 60 were expected to graduate. There were a preparatory course of two years, and a main

course of three, the fee being 2 shillings a month. English, Chinese, and Russian were taught. One foreigner was employed, giving 10 hours a week for £7-10s. a month. A small museum, but no practical work.

(3) A private school, founded by a commercial magnate, and housed in excellent buildings in his compound. Course of six years; 300 boys; fee, 3 shillings a month. The first graduates, recently turned out, had all found places, in fact were applied for in advance.

Higher Commercial School, Tokyo.

History.

351. Commercial education of the higher grade is given in the higher commercial schools at Tokyo and Kobe, both of them Government institutions. The first has grown out of the private school founded by Mr. Arinori Mori in 1875, and developed by Mr. Jiro Yano, to which reference has already been made. It became a higher school in 1887. In 1893 Mr. Yano resigned the directorship, and in the next seven years the school had as many as ten directors; in 1898 alone the director was changed in May, June, August, October, and November. It is hardly necessary to add that the courses of study have been repeatedly revised. The Minister's report for 1902 gives 61 instructors in this school and 957 pupils; the expenditure was £8,244.

Staff and
equipment.

352. The buildings of the school are extensive, and largely of brick; they include a library, reading-room, and commercial museum, the exhibits in which are partly objects for reference, partly specimens of the most recent articles of export and import, renewed yearly. The class-rooms are well equipped as usual, with immense blackboards and other necessities; but the "practical" room has been closed, as savouring too much of play. The students maintain a boat-house and boats. The director is assisted by an advisory council, consisting of two high educational officials, two representatives of the Department of Agriculture and Commerce, and from three to seven persons experienced in commerce and industry. The school calendar gives the following as members of the council:—two bank presidents, the president of a life insurance company, the president of the Japan Mail steamship company, the chief manager of another great company, and a professor in the college of agriculture.

The same calendar gives the staff as consisting of a director, 18 professors (one absent in Europe), six foreign professors, six assistant professors (one absent), and 26 lecturers. The following subjects were provided for:—

• *Professors.*—English (5); applied chemistry and commercial products; science and practice of commerce, and book-keeping; book-keeping and commercial practice (2); political economy and commercial practice (3); statistics; commercial history and composition; commercial geography; mathematics and physics; commercial law; French.

Foreign Professors.—English (2); French; Spanish; Chinese; commercial geography, arithmetic, science and practice, and English.

Assistant Professors.—Mathematics; Japanese penmanship; commercial practice and English; gymnastics (3).

Lecturers.—Science of commerce (3); French (2); commercial morality; international law (2); administrative law; political economy (2); civil law (2); Russian; German; Chinese (2); criminal law; mechanical engineering; applied chemistry; constitutional law; commercial law (2); commercial products; commercial correspondence; general jurisprudence.

Seven of the Japanese staff have foreign qualifications; twelve are also professors in the Imperial University or in other institutions; six hold judicial or legal appointments; and several others occupy posts under Government.

353. The school provides a preparatory course of one year, and a main course of three years. Graduates of middle schools may be admitted to the former, and graduates of higher schools to the latter, without examination, so far as room permits; but as there are now 1,300 applicants for 250 places, there always is an examination, of middle school standard, in the following:—Japanese, Chinese, English (dictation, conversation, and translation), arithmetic, algebra, plane and solid geometry, trigonometry, Japanese and foreign history and geography, free-hand and mechanical drawing, physics, chemistry, and natural science. For graduates of commercial schools of class A certain subjects may be modified; but all candidates must be over 17. There is also a "professional," or post-graduate, course of two years, chiefly intended for candidates for the consular service. In 1902 the number of pupils was 957, of whom 592 belonged to the main course, 303 to the preparatory, and 62 to the professional.

Preparatory
course.

354. The subjects and weekly hours of the preparatory course are these :—commercial morality 1 ; Japanese penmanship 1 ; Japanese composition 2 ; arithmetic and algebra 4 ; book-keeping 3 ; applied physics 2 ; applied chemistry 3 ; general jurisprudence 2 ; English 9 ; second foreign language 3 ; drill 3. Total, 33 hours. The second language may be French, Spanish (for the Philippines), German, Italian, Chinese, Russian, or Korean. Their relative popularity may be gathered from the following figures, which apply to the whole school :—French 398, German 318, Chinese 314, Russian 37, Spanish 3, Korean 0.

Main course.

355. The principal course covers three years, the subjects being thus distributed :—

First year.—Commercial morality, commercial correspondence, commercial arithmetic, commercial geography, book-keeping, mechanical engineering, commercial products, political economy, civil law, English (6 hours throughout), second foreign language (3 hours throughout), science of commerce, drill.

Second year.—Commercial correspondence, commercial arithmetic, commercial geography, book-keeping, commercial products, political economy, civil law, English, second foreign language, science of commerce, drill.

Third year.—Commercial history, book-keeping, political economy, finance, statistics, civil law, commercial law, international law, English, second foreign language, practice of commerce (now considerably reduced), drill.

About 32 weekly hours are provided for throughout. Examinations are held at the end of each term and year, the results being classified as A, B, C, or D. To secure promotion a student must obtain at least C in every subject at the annual examination, failing which he must repeat the whole course for that year. Whereas 250 are admitted yearly, only about 120 graduate, the rest falling away from sickness, failure, or private reasons ; but in last year's graduating class of 120 only two failed.

English work.

356. The students of the Higher Commercial School were described to me by a foreigner as the pleasantest and most intelligent pupils that he had in Japan, and the best at English ; they could follow him and answer back readily, whereas many of the University men seemed quite incapable of understanding him. Perhaps the commercial students are more alive to the

importance of the subject to themselves. It afforded me much interest to attend the "tenth annual exhibition of the English-speaking department," consisting of recitations, songs, and short dramatic pieces in that language. The best parts of the performance were up to the level of Indian pronunciation on similar occasions, but some portions were distinctly inferior; on the other hand, I have never heard Indian students attempt "Home, sweet home," or any other English song, nor have I previously encountered a chorus of Aristophanic frogs in the East.

357. The annual tuition fee is £2 for the preparatory course; and 50 shillings for the main and professional courses. Students and graduates. Loan scholarships, not exceeding £10 a year, may be allotted to promising students who have attended for at least a year, and who are unable to pay their own expenses; but the number of these is not more than from 10 to 20. The majority of the students are drawn from a prosperous class, and many of them are rich. The age of a graduating student varies from 20 to 28, the average being 23. The alumni of the school maintain an association and a magazine, which reports the changes of address or of occupation among them; and the following details are given of the occupations of 1,210 graduates:—In banks and companies, 576; in business on their own account, 64; in commercial education, 125; in the post-graduate course, 62; under the Department for Foreign Affairs, 22; naval accountants, etc., 62; abroad, 13; in the army or navy, 197; dead, 89.

358. Attached to the Higher Commercial School is an institute for training teachers for commercial schools, with 28 pupils; but it seems doubtful whether there is sufficient demand to justify its continuance. It was intended to afford special training to graduates of normal or middle schools, or of commercial schools of class A, the course of study extending over two years; no tuition fees are charged, and the students may be aided to the extent of 12 shillings a month, in return for their binding themselves to teach for a certain time under the orders of the Department. The subjects are all of a commercial Institute for training teachers.

character, with the addition of the theory and method of teaching for those who are not normal school graduates.

Higher Commercial School, Kobe.

Equipment.

359. The great expansion which followed the war with China led to the founding of the Kobe Higher Commercial School in 1902. Osaka, which already had a good commercial school, and Kobe were rivals for the honour of possessing the new institution; and the present site, worth about £10,000, was given by the city of Kobe. The school is finely placed on rising ground, outside Kobe, with a splendid view over the Bay; its grounds have an area of 427,000 square feet, of which over 52,000 are occupied by the buildings. These are mostly of wood, and two-storied; but there is one brick structure to hold the library and sample-rooms. On the buildings and warming apparatus £18,000 have been spent, together with £700 for books, and £1,000 for furniture. The sample-rooms are to be fitted up as a museum, and opened to the public; and there are the beginnings of a library; but the practical room is not fitted up as yet, and a dormitory was not included in the plan. The buildings were intended for 500 students, but will probably take about 600. Foreigners are employed to teach English and book-keeping. For the current year, the school being only half filled up as yet, the expenditure was about £3,700, besides £500 for books and samples.

Division of
preparatory
course.

360. The school follows the same lines as that of Tokyo, but is trying an experiment in the preparatory course. At present the middle schools are intended to train boys for higher education, and are equipped for that purpose; but the technical schools of middle grade are not. Hence a boy entering a technical school makes it at least difficult for himself to go on to higher education. At Kobe, therefore, the preparatory course has been divided into two sections, one for boys from middle schools, and the other for boys from commercial schools, the curricula being adjusted so that both may enter the main course on a level. This year they took 120 middle school boys out of 570 applicants, and 40 commercial school boys out of 250 applicants.

VII.—Industries.

361. In feudal Japan the principal handicrafts were organised into guilds, and as a general rule occupations were hereditary, the most honourable being that of the swordsmiths. The best work was produced under the patronage of the feudal lords, and not for the market; time being of no consequence, and the worker throwing his whole soul into his work. Some of the guilds still exist, though now conducted on modern lines, and trades unions are also beginning to develop. Formerly, also, the apprentice system generally prevailed. The apprentice was received into his employer's family, where he grew up to manhood, the master eventually starting him in business on his own account; it was, as some one has remarked, adoption rather than apprenticeship. Now, however, the introduction of Western systems of manufacture has modified the old ways, which seem likely to be replaced by regular education in schools of an industrial character. The rigorous interdiction of foreign intercourse under the Tokugawa Shoguns somewhat impeded the development of the manufacturing industries, otherwise encouraged by them: but when the Shogunate was tottering to its fall, several of the daimyos started industrial enterprises of a Western type, such as arsenals, shipbuilding, the manufacture of porcelain and glass, etc., and labour-saving machinery was imported for spinning and weaving. After the Restoration the new Government systematically encouraged the use of Western methods, setting the example by establishing a model filature, a silk-spinning mill, a woollen factory, a cotton-spinning mill, a cement factory, a glass factory, a paper mill, and other model workshops, besides lending money for the purchase of necessary plant. In time, as these enterprises were taken up by private individuals, the Government began to sell its own factories. There being a widespread idea in India that every sort of undertaking has been heavily subsidised in Japan, the express question was put to Count Okuma, who replied that it was hardly correct to say that the general policy of the Government was one of subsidies.

Government
and indus-
tries

It is true that certain objects have been effected in this way, notably in the case of shipping; but, speaking generally, the assistance of Government has been afforded in the way of education and experiments. The Government started railways, arsenals, dockyards, a mint, and other public undertakings, round which subsidiary enterprises gathered, and all these served to train numbers of men who subsequently set up for themselves, individually or in companies. The Government at the same time tried to encourage old industries, such as silk, by model factories and by obtaining foreign experts. But direct subsidies have in a number of cases been steadily refused. Count Okuma quoted two instances—~~matches~~ and cotton-spinning. The match industry has never been subsidised; by free competition, at home and abroad, Japanese matches have made their way to China, to the Straits, and now to India. The Bombay mills, again, some 15 years ago could produce cotton 5 yen a unit cheaper than Japan. The Japanese mills appealed to their Government, which steadfastly refused to do anything for them; and in the end, by their own efforts, they were able to produce the stuff at 4 yen cheaper than Bombay. It may be a human weakness, said Count Okuma, to call on the Government for help, but it has not been the general policy of the Japanese Government to respond in that particular way. On the other hand, it has done much in other ways, educational or experimental; it has maintained model works and industrial laboratories, it has hired out the latest machines of a costly character, it has sent experts round the provinces to encourage enterprise by lectures or practical experiments, it has despatched students and merchants to foreign countries for investigation and study, it has imported foreign experts by the hundred. This example has been followed by the local authorities and municipalities, notably Kyoto, which in 1870 established a chemical laboratory for ceramics, dyeing, and soap-making; in 1872 sent weavers to France, and introduced a number of French looms; in 1874 started a weaving factory, and in 1875 one for dyeing. Other local bodies have adopted similar

measures, such as laboratories and training schools, local competitive fairs, the hiring out of expensive machines, or the advancing of money to enable manufacturers to purchase them.

362. Japan, hitherto essentially an agricultural country, is fast becoming industrial and commercial; her agricultural exports (including raw silk), which were 51·6 of the total exports in 1890, sank to 37·8 per cent. in 1902, whilst industrial exports rose from 18 to 38 per cent. The modern factory has increased the wages of the artisan; on the other hand, it is repulsive to the artistic instincts of the Japanese. At present one is always told that living artists can do, and are doing, as good work as was ever done, only less of it, the demand for the best work being infinitely smaller than that for cheap qualities. But it seems as if these artistic capacities would eventually be crushed out of a large section of the population by the growing extension of mechanical work in factories, which are already polluting the air and defacing the landscape in many parts of the country. Some of them are little more than sheds, but others in building and equipment vie with those of Europe and America; and all attract a steady stream of immigrants from the agricultural districts. Unfortunately there are not, so far as I know, any factory laws to protect the workers, many of whom are compelled to labour for fearfully long hours in surroundings that are far from healthy. It is true that the long hours of the silk operatives do not seem to impair their cheerfulness in some districts, where the introduction of the industry has created a degree of prosperity previously unknown; yet a painful impression is left by the accounts given of the methods whereby Japanese mills have been enabled to undersell the produce of Bombay.

363. To illustrate the growth of Japanese industries a few statistics have been gleaned from *Japan in the Beginning of the 20th Century*. Between 1890 and 1902 the value of exported goods of all kinds increased from £5,600,000 to £25,600,000. In 1901 the output of woven goods amounted to

Growth of
factories.

Some
industrial
statistics.

£15,000,000; cotton yarns followed with £9,400,000 and raw silk with £8,600,000. Paper amounted to nearly £2,060,000; porcelain and earthenware to nearly £700,000; lacquered ware to nearly £600,000; matches to about the same. The output of *sake* (the national intoxicant) was worth nearly £11,000,000 in 1899, whilst that of *soy* (the national sauce) came to nearly £2,400,000. Of factories employing not less than 10 hands, there were 1,967 run by motors in 1896, and 4,403 not so run; the former have increased (1903) to 3,381, the latter fallen to 3,791. The total number of hands is 390,000, of whom 64 per cent. are females. In motor-using factories 92 per cent. of the operatives are over 14; of the remainder 82 per cent. are girls, and the majority are employed in "fibre" industries" (filatures, spinning, weaving, etc.). In the factories which do not employ motors 86 per cent. are over 14, and of the remainder 72 per cent. are girls. Of all those under 14 about 40 per cent. are employed on "fibres," and 31 per cent. on matches. In filatures most of the hands are females, from 16 to 22 years old; few are below 12 or 13. In glass factories boys of 12 or 13 are employed to some extent, or even as young as 10; in match and tobacco factories the youngest are about 9. The usual working hours are from 11 to 16 or 17 a day, the latter in hand-weaving workshops. The average wages are as follows, 4 sen being equivalent to one penny:—Fibre works, adult males 30 sen, females 20 sen; machine-making works, 50 or 60 sen, while a skilled hand may get more than one yen (2 shillings); matches, women 12 to 20 sen, girls 5 to 13.

But whilst contemplating the rapid growth of Japanese industries, it is not necessary to overlook the extremely poor character of many of the products; who, for instance, would buy Japanese matches or soap, if he could get any other?

Institutions
for industrial
education.

364. Industrial education may be dated from the establishment in 1873 of what is now the Engineering College at Tokyo, followed by that of the Tokyo Polytechnic School (now the Higher Technical School). In course of time industrial schools of secondary grade and apprentices' schools were

introduced, and in 1898 the Minister remarked in his report : " Industry is now passing from a limited scale of development to a more organised system on a larger scale. The apprenticeship system is being superseded by a training in factories. It follows that a great majority of those destined for practical work as artisans prefer to enter technical schools of a comparatively low standard. Hence the necessity of training competent teachers." The necessity has been met, partly by increasing the number of higher technical schools, partly by affording special training for teachers of a lower grade. In addition, since 1894, Government has been granting subsidies towards industrial as well as other schools of a technical character. At the present time industrial education is imparted in schools of three grades : the lowest in 44 supplementary technical schools and 33 apprentices' schools ; of intermediate rank in 25 industrial schools ; and more advanced in the 3 higher technical schools, in the engineering department of the fifth higher school, and in the engineering colleges of the imperial universities.

365. Supplementary schools for technical instruction are 44 in number, with about 3,300 pupils. One of them is maintained by Government as a practising school in connection with the higher technical school of Tokyo, the teaching being done by one instructor and various members of the faculty of the higher school. The general subjects taught are morals, Japanese, and arithmetic ; the special subjects, physics, chemistry, practical geometry, free-hand drawing, instrumental drawing, materials for woodwork, tools for woodwork, building construction, measurement, architectural drawing, materials and tools for metal-work, machine mechanics, dynamos, machine drawing, dyeing, weaving, applied chemistry, industrial designs. From these five are chosen by the director from time to time to be taught, if sufficient pupils offer. The pupils can choose what they please, but must take at least one special subject in addition to the general ones. The term of instruction varies from a month to a year ; the hours are limited to 18 in a

Supplementary technical schools.

week for one class, divided between the evenings and Saturday afternoons ; the hours for any one subject are from one to three, except in the case of drawing and designing. The number of pupils is limited to 50 for each study ; they should be over 10, and have graduated at an ordinary primary school ; but in practice these restrictions are not enforced, and adults are admitted. It will be seen, therefore, that the institution is practically a night school for outsiders of almost any age, from 10 upwards. Certificates of graduation are awarded to those who complete a course satisfactorily. The present number of pupils is 272.

Apprentices'
schools.

366. The former system of apprentices has already been referred to, a common period was for 7 years, but some remained in their masters' families much longer than that. The kindly relations existing between the employers and their apprentices have attracted the eulogies of Mr. Hearn and other foreigners, but there was liable to be little of regular training under the old system ; as a Japanese described it, a boy swept the shop out, and picked up what he could. In consequence these irregular methods are being replaced by systematic instruction in apprentices' schools, of which there are 31 public and 2 private, with 2,200 pupils, and 192 teachers. The Government also maintains one, attached to the Tokyo higher technical school, where it serves as a practising-school. Schools of this kind may be established in connection with industrial schools of secondary grade ; and are encouraged to form an advisory council of persons experienced in education or in industrial pursuits, in order to keep them in touch with their surroundings. Candidates for admission should be over 12, and have completed at least the ordinary primary course ; but by special permission others may be admitted as well, and may be taught reading and writing in addition to the regular subjects.* The difference between these and the supplementary technical schools is stated to be, that the apprentices are not required to study or revise the primary school lessons, unless they choose to do so, or have never completed that course. The full pro-

gramme of the apprentices' schools includes morals, arithmetic, geometry, chemistry, and drawing, together with industrial subjects; but any of these (except morals) may be omitted, or made optional. Practical work, if it interferes with the teaching, involves too great expense, or is otherwise inconvenient, may be omitted, the apprentices having opportunities for such outside the school. The length of the course is from six months to four years, the season for teaching may be fixed according to local requirements, and lessons may be given on Sundays or at night. The technical subjects now taught in these schools are woodwork, dyeing and weaving, lacquer work, ship-building, and furnace work. The expenditure of public apprentices' schools in 1902 was £14,217, giving an average of £458 per school, or about £6.6 per pupil.

367. At the Government school in Tokyo the subjects are wood and metal work, the former being subdivided into carpentry, joinery, and architectural drawing, the latter into casting, forging, fishing, metal plate and lead work, and mechanical drawing. The subjects common to both sections are morals, arithmetic, physical science, materials, tools and methods of work, drawing, and drill; from 15 to 17 hours being given in class, and from 22 to 28 in the workshop. Both sections are taught together for the first year; the whole course covers 3 years; and the pupils are then sent to factories or private workshops as apprentices for a couple of years, under supervision by the school. The present number of pupils is 38 for wood, and 95 for metal. They should be between 12 and 16, and have completed the ordinary primary course or its equivalent; but older boys who have been at work for a year or more may also be admitted. For the first year only they pay about 6 pence a month. On passing their final examination they receive a certificate of graduation, and for exemplary behaviour a testimonial of good conduct. A graduate may be allowed to study for a year longer in the school, receiving a further certificate; and after two years' satisfactory practical work in a workshop he may receive a certificate as a competent

Government
apprentices'
school.

craftsman. It is stated that all the graduates are doing well as artisans in public or private establishments. The teaching staff consists of 1 professor, 5 instructors, and 8 assistants.

A municipal
school.

368. In the provinces three apprentices' schools were visited which were combined with industrial schools of middle grade, and one which was purely for apprentices. The last belonged to a municipality, and was 8 years old; there were 87 boys and 10 teachers, of whom 4 were for class-work. The class-subjects were Japanese, arithmetic, science, and drawing; 13 or 14 hours a week being devoted to these, and 4 hours a day to the workshop. The course lasted 3 years; the subjects were building, carpentry, casting and blacksmith's work, and lacquer; very few, however, took the metal work, as it requires more capital and plant than carpentry. Boys enter at 12 or 14; 40 are admitted annually out of 50 or 60 applicants; and about 25 graduate, the rest falling out by the way, probably on account of poverty, though no fees are charged. Of the graduates some go to work in dockyards, others on the railway; some set up as carpenters. They can earn from 5 pence to a shilling at once. The technical instructors may have private businesses of their own, but attend the school all day. The annual cost of this school is £700, towards which Government contributes £200, and about £100 are realised by sales.

Industrial
schools.

369. Industrial education of middle grade is imparted in what are called distinctively industrial schools, the graduates of which, as foremen and managers, have played a considerable part in the industrial development of Japan. There are now 25 of these schools, of which 23 are public; the pupils number 2,600, and each school has more applicants than it can admit. They employ 277 instructors, or one to every 9 or 10 pupils; and receive more than £6,200 annually from the national treasury. One school receives as much as £400, but the average subvention is about £250. Their total annual expenditure is set down as £50,000, or an average of £2,000 apiece.

Candidates for admission to the main course should be over 14, and have completed the full higher primary course; but to a preparatory course they may be admitted two years earlier. The subjects of the preparatory course are morals, Japanese, arithmetic, geography, history, elementary physics and chemistry, drawing, and drill; a foreign language may be added. The main course includes morals, Japanese, mathematics, physics, chemistry, drawing, and drill, together with technical studies. If necessary, geography, history, natural history, foreign languages, economy, industrial legislation, book-keeping, etc., may be added. The technical subjects are civil engineering, metallurgy, shipbuilding, electricity, wood work, mining, weaving and dyeing, ceramics, lacquer work, designing and painting. Of these, weaving and dyeing seem to attract most pupils, whilst metallurgy and civil engineering come next.

370. A number of schools of this type were visited, of which Examples. the following are a few notes:—

(1) A prefectural school with 120 boys, who had completed the second higher primary year; and 14 teachers, mostly from the higher technical school. Annual cost, £1,500. The building two-storied, the workshop built by the pupils themselves. The recognised general subjects are taught, but no English; the special subjects are engineering, carpentry, and building, the first-named being followed by 70 of the boys. The course lasts for 3 years, but some stay for 6 months longer; there is no tuition fee. The boys are mostly drawn from a poor class, at first a good many came from the country, and their board and lodging were supervised; but now almost all live in Tokyo itself, and there is no need for either a dormitory or supervision. This year 45 were admitted out of three times the number of applicants; about 30 graduated, 5 failing, and others dropping off from sickness. The pupils work about 7 hours a day. Graduates can earn 9 or 10 pence a day at once, and after a couple of years as much as 2s. 6d. A few orders are received for metal-castings, window-frames, etc., and last year £70 were earned by sales. The school is occasionally visited by the prefectural inspector.

(2) A school with 1,100 pupils, some of them attending day classes, but mostly *employés* who come from 6 to 10 p. m. They are taught drawing, and the theory of various trades, but no practical work.

(3) A prefectural school, only opened this year: 94 pupils at present, but 180 are expected when the buildings are completed. These are plain wooden structures, but very extensive; the class rooms excellent, the science room provided with dark slides for the windows. The land cost £600, the buildings £5,000; the estimated expenditure of the school for the current year is £1,800. The class-teachers come

from the higher technical school and school of fine arts; the manual instructors are from the town, some of them working in the school from 8 a. m. to 4 p. m., others for shorter periods. No fee is charged. The school provides a secondary course, with the usual general subjects, English, dyeing and weaving; and courses in lacquer and ceramics for apprentices, from 12 to 17 years old. The surrounding district produces silk, pottery, and cheap lacquer; not much weaving is done at present, but people are anxious to learn it, and nearly 200 boys applied for 20 places in the weaving class.

(4) A school, 8 years old, with 125 boys and 10 regular teachers, besides assistants. Out of 130 applicants, 50 were admitted this year; only 16 graduated, many disappearing after a year or two, as they are too poor to last out the whole course of four years. Even then, however, they have learned enough to improve their prospects of earning a living. The school teaches metal-work and carpentry, a little science, a little English; this last for the names of tools, &c., and also because those who join the Naval Dockyard require it. Graduates can earn from 20 pence to 2 shillings a day in the Dockyard. The annual cost of the school is £780, towards which the Government gives £140, the prefecture £100, and the city £100. At the outset no fee was charged, but 6 pence were taken from the pupils monthly and saved, in order to buy tools for them when they left; this has now been converted into a tuition fee. There is also a class for apprentices, who come at the age of 12, and work for 4 years. The prefectural inspector here was particularly interested in industrial work, and frequently visited the school.

(5) A prefectural school, the results of which are viewed with some disfavour by the ratepayers, as most of the graduates leave the district, the carpenters migrating to Tokyo, the smiths to Hokkaido. Annual cost, £1,200; no fees. In the main course of 3 years blacksmith's work and building are taught; but there is also an apprentices' course of one or two years for small carpentry; and a teacher has been obtained to introduce lacquer work into the district. The school has room for 200 boys, but is only attended by 150 at present; there are 22 teachers, 5 of them from the higher technical school. A little English is included. Twice a year a general sale of work at fixed prices is held.

(6) A prefectural school, 17 years old, but now housed in new buildings which cost £7,000; a large hall and dormitory are still to be built. There are 136 boys, and 22 teachers. Boys come at the age of 14 or 15 for a four years' course, after which most return to work in their fathers' homes; the special subjects being weaving, lacquer, and ceramics. The porcelain and lacquer workers of the district are glad to send their sons here to learn improved methods and patterns; others apply for new designs, which are issued to them by the drawing department. Annual cost, £2,200, towards which Government gives £350. The class rooms and workshops are fine rooms; looms of various kinds are provided, some worked by hand, some by electric power; the various departments keep a number of finished articles for sale; and there is also a handsome upper room filled with show cases. This school won a first-class medal at Osaka Exhibition, where the Emperor purchased a tablecloth woven by them; and sent an exhibit to St. Louis in 1904.

(7) A prefectural school for ceramics only, in a centre celebrated for its porcelain. The school being only 4 years old, and having a 4 years' course, turned out its first graduates—twelve in number—last year. The land was given by the town, the building cost £1,600, the equipment (not yet complete) about £800; the annual cost is £900, paid by the prefecture. There is room for 120 boys, but only 78 were on the roll at the time of my visit, and many of these had not turned up since the close of the summer vacation some weeks before. Most of them are sons of porcelain-workers, but a few of farmers, the graduates enter works in the town. A little English is taught, for the names of chemicals, and for reference to text-books; and 3 or 4 per cent. of the boys come for the sake of this English teaching, and its cheapness (the fee being only 1 shilling a month, against two or three times that amount in the middle schools), but the director endeavours to detect these, and to keep them out. Most of the boys have completed the full primary course; about 10, however, come in for purely practical work for a couple of years. The teachers are 13; the prefectural inspector comes to look at the accounts, and the Departmental inspector from Tokyo has also been here. About £50 worth of porcelain is sold in the year. Asked whether his workshop was superior to those in the town, the director replied that it was so in two respects, because he had machines for fast work, and because he used coal instead of wood. The machines, however, are not often worked, "because it costs too much", and the only fuel visibly in use was wood.

(8) A school less than 3 years old, and badly housed in an old primary school building, with some added sheds; a new building, to have been begun this year, was of course stopped by the war. There are 77 boys from all over the prefecture, 50 being lodged in a dormitory; all the applicants cannot be admitted. Annual cost £750, towards which the Government gives £130, the prefecture £100, the town £150, and the rural district £50. About £20 worth of articles are sold each month. No fees are charged, as they began with poor boys; but now the sons of well-to-do farmers and tradesmen are coming, in preference to taking up literary courses, and there seems no reason why they should not be made to pay. Boys are admitted after completing the full primary course, and are taught some of the middle-school subjects, such as morals, Japanese, arithmetic, geometry, chemistry, and physics, as well as carpentry, lacquer, or basket-work. The last two are industries new to this part of the country, but the school is imitating well-known varieties, besides which it has struck out some new combinations of its own. At present the woodwork is most popular, and then the lacquer; but there was a man of 37 in attendance, who had come from another prefecture to learn basket-work. The next oldest was 22, the rest about 16 or 17. The school is open for 45 hours a week, the regular hours being from 8 till 4, but many boys come early in the morning, and continue at work as long as daylight lasts, or even by lamplight, just as they might do at home, their object being to make themselves as efficient as possible in 3 years. A boy makes the same article over and over again, until he can make it well. Two teachers take the bookwork, eight the practical; one of the former lives in the dormitory with the boys; their food costs them about 10 shillings a month.

(9) A prefectural school, with 147 pupils, equally divided between woodwork, lacquer, and metal work. The wood section is subdivided into wood-carving, preparing articles for lacquering, and machine work; the lacquer section into ordinary lacquering and gold lacquering; the metal section into chiselling, hammer work, and casting. To this practical work from 16 hours in the first year to 27 in the fourth are devoted; the general subjects taking up the balance required to make up 42 hours a week. These general subjects include morals, Japanese, arithmetic, equations, geometry, physics and inorganic chemistry, drawing, painting, designing, applied æsthetics, industrial economics, book-keeping, and drill. One or two hours of English have now been added. The pupils have completed the full primary course; most apply for the wood section, because it requires less plant than metal-working, but on the other hand metal workers earn more. This year 26 were admitted out of 46 applicants, by an examination in reading, drawing, and arithmetic. No fees are charged, and a few in consequence come for the cheap instruction in general subjects; but these are turned out as far as possible. The following is a rough classification of the parents of pupils:—Prefectural officials 16; industrial 7; commercial 45; agricultural 46; “nothing” 32. This last head indicates the *shizoku*, or gentry, the former *samurai* and the list shows two things, the small extent to which an industrial school may attract boys of the industrial class, and the comparatively large extent to which the former *samurai* are taking to other than literary or official occupations. Many of the boys, however, have probably tried to get into middle schools and failed, before taking to the technical course. The pupils make the same complete article until they can make it well; and for each boy a register of materials used is kept, together with the price brought in by the sale of his work. A register is also kept of the graduates, so that an individual worker can be recommended if asked for. The cost of this school is between £8 and £9 a head, or £1,300 in all; the prefecture gives £1,000, the national treasury £300; about £130 are realised by sales. There are 14 regular teachers, who receive from 30 shillings to £5 a month, and 9 artisans, who earn from 1 to 2 shillings daily (Sundays being included, but not the summer vacation). One of these men was sitting in a dust-proof room, lacquering; but there were no pupils present, and he appeared to be merely working for the market as he might have been doing at home. The boys had drawn and coloured 1,500 picture postcards to be given to wounded soldiers, of whom there were a number in the neighbourhood.

In addition to those described two industrial schools for girls were visited, but these are referred to under the head of female education.

Summary.

371. From these notes it may be inferred that the Japanese industrial schools are on the whole thriving, and meeting a want; as also that official regulations do not prevent them from displaying a reasonable amount of adaptability to local circumstances. Most of them have more applicants than they can

take in; all of them are connected with local industries, in addition to which they may be trying to introduce new ones. It is true that there is a good deal of carpentry and blacksmith's work amongst the curricula; but the former is always in demand in a country of wooden architecture, and for the latter there are numerous openings in the present circumstances of Japan. Intended originally for poor boys of the industrial class, and so made as inexpensive as possible, they are attracting the comparatively prosperous in increasing numbers, and therefore might in many cases charge higher fees; on the other hand, so far as public expenditure is concerned, the provision of buildings, equipment, and teachers is generally liberal. In India it is complained that many boys join technical schools for the sake of the general subjects only; the same is known in Japan, but it seems to affect only a small proportion of the students, and the school authorities are on their guard against such.

372. Industrial education of the highest grade is given in 3 higher technical schools, as well as in the engineering department of one of the higher schools, and in the engineering colleges, which have been referred to already. The higher technical schools attach great importance to practical skill, and are equipped with numerous workshops and the newest apparatus and books, so as to keep their students abreast of industrial progress. They are situated in the three chief centres of industry and art, but exhibit some differences, according to local circumstances. Thus the Osaka school includes brewing, ship-building, and marine engineering, all of them of great local importance; the Tokyo school makes a special feature of the weaving and dyeing of wool; whilst at Kyoto it is silk that claims chief attention. Each school has an advisory council, chosen from higher officials of the Departments of Education and of Agriculture and Commerce, together with experienced local merchants and manufacturers. The main course in each extends over 3 years. Candidates for admission must have graduated from a middle school, or a technical school of middle grade; but by far the larger number (95 per cent. at Tokyo)

Advanced
industrial
education.

come from the former, illustrating what has already been said on this point under the head of commerce. The best are allowed, if they will, to stay at the school and prosecute their studies further, or are given practical work in workshops and factories under the supervision of the school. There are also elective courses in special subjects for graduates of technical schools, or those who have been engaged in industries for at least 3 years; to these foreigners also are admitted. Fees are paid by all the students, except the post-graduates; but a certain number of loan scholarships are available.

Higher Technical School, Tokyo.

History.

373. This famous school was established under a humbler name in 1881, the regulations being revised in 1890 in order to "guard against overtheorising, and to check the prevalent aversion to practical labour." At that time the expenses of the school were about £5,000 annually. In 1892 there were 70 students of industrial chemistry, 152 of industrial mechanics, and 51 in the apprentices' school; 273 in all, with 33 teachers. Sixty per cent. of the regular pupils, and fifty-four per cent. of the apprentices belonged to the former *samurai*; the remainder were commoners. The instructors devoted their spare time to investigating methods of applying technological science to Japanese industries; and the annual reports of the Minister make frequent reference to these enquiries. The year 1894 marked the turn of the tide in technical matters; the graduates found work immediately, as also the older graduates who were previously unemployed, and petitions began to be received, offering employment at the earliest moment that the graduates could be set free. At this time the school was remarkably successful in its experiments with silk weaving, umbrella fabrics, earthenware, etc., so much so that people interested in umbrellas began to come in order to see how the stuff was woven; but those who have purchased an umbrella in Japan will probably think that there is still room for considerable improvement. In 1897 there were 283 pupils (including 7 Koreans) and 46 teachers,

the expenditure amounting to £6,300; and in the experimental department "specially good results were obtained with spirit made of sawdust." The nature of these results is not specified, and henceforth the Minister's report is silent on the topic of experiments. In the next year, however, it is noted that the demand for graduates of the apprentices' school was so great that not a tenth of the number could be supplied. In 1902 there were 446 students and 128 apprentices, with 66 instructors, and a total expenditure of over £13,000. The school has attached to it also a supplementary school of industry, and an institute for training industrial teachers. It has throughout exercised a very great influence on the industrial progress of Japan, by supplying both technical workers and teachers.

374. The school occupies more than 350,000 square feet of ground, nearly half of which is built upon; the buildings are three-storied, and of brick. The site is connected with the river by two canals, which facilitate the transport of coal and other materials to the workshops and laboratories. For a dormitory there is not sufficient room, the students live in lodgings, the addresses of which are known, but without other supervision. The liberal donations of machinery and apparatus, which seem so common in America, have hardly found their way to Japan, any more than to India; and the greater part of the equipment has to be purchased. Staff and equipment.

The staff consists of a director, 20 professors, 11 professorial lecturers, 24 instructors, 5 lecturers, 10 assistants, a medical adviser, and 12 clerks; a liberal allowance for from four to five hundred pupils. Two foreigners are employed; one, a Lancashire man, in weaving, the other, an American, for mechanical engineering; and most of the higher staff have been trained abroad, sometimes in several countries.

375. Owing to the number of applicants (741 in 1902 for 187 places) an entrance examination is held. Middle-school graduates are examined in English, mathematics, physics and chemistry, and drawing; industrial-school graduates in Japanese as well. Candidates for the section of industrial designs are exempted Courses of study.

from physics and mathematics, but must produce a simple design instead. The examination is held at local schools as well as in Tokyo, and candidates have to pay a fee equal to 4 shillings. The school is divided into seven sections: dyeing and weaving, ceramics, applied chemistry, mechanical technology, electrical technology (sub-divided into electrical engineering and electro-chemistry), industrial designing, and architecture. The following subjects are common to most sections, though they may be studied in different proportions:—morals, mathematics, physics, chemistry, applied chemistry, applied mechanics, drawing, machine designing, experiments in physics, chemical analysis, industrial economy, hygiene, book-keeping, workshop building, English, and drill. The amount of English done is very small, but it is useful for consulting books of reference. Each section has also special subjects of its own, and from 7 to 28 hours of workshop practice according to circumstances, the total number of weekly hours being 39.

Students and
graduates.

376. In 1904 the students in the main course were thus distributed:—dyeing 24, weaving 46, ceramics 19, applied chemistry 70, mechanical engineering 196, electrical engineering 69, electro-chemistry 21, industrial designs 28. Total 473. In addition there were 36 in special courses, and amongst them 12 Chinese, 6 Indians, and 2 Filipinos. Of the Indians three were studying ceramics, and one apiece weaving, applied chemistry, and mechanical engineering. The tuition fee is £2 a year for Japanese, and £4 for foreigners; this last, partly because foreigners give more trouble through ignorance of the language, and partly because the school does not want too many of them. A student who has attended for at least two years and shown himself meritorious, may apply for a loan of money up to £1 monthly, for one year. Every student who comes up to the standard in his final examination receives a diploma; if his attainments and conduct are exceptionally good, he may receive a special diploma with honour; on the other hand, those rated only at "D" or "E" receive a pass, stating

that they have studied so many courses at the school. The best graduates, retained as post-graduate students for special researches, may receive special certificates for satisfactory work; those sent to factories for practical work under supervision, may receive certificates of training, and can then usually obtain responsible posts at once. It is stated that many of the graduates have made inventions and discoveries, and the following account is given of the present occupations of 1,119 of them:— Experts in companies, factories, etc., 547; experts in Government service, 145; teachers, 130; abroad, 61; post-graduate study, 18; army or navy, 29; dead, 65; unknown or unemployed, 24.

377. An institute for training industrial teachers was attached to this school in 1894. It now has two sections, the Regular and the Shorter. The Regular section includes six courses:— mechanical engineering, architecture, dyeing and weaving, ceramics, applied chemistry, and industrial designs. Each course lasts for 3 years; and, in addition, during a fourth year the students are required to carry out special individual researches, to study the art of teaching and the present educational regulations, and to practice teaching in the attached apprentices' and supplementary schools. For admission they are selected by competitive examination; candidates must be between 17 and 25, healthy, and graduates of normal or middle schools, or of industrial schools of secondary grade. They may be granted 12 shillings a month, but then are bound to teach in an industrial school for one year longer than the period of the allowance. In this section there are 104 men.

Institute for
training
teachers.

For the Shorter course, candidates must be between 20 and 30, and graduates of an apprentices' school, or of the second year course of a higher primary school. There are six subjects taught, *viz.*, metal work, wood work, dyeing, weaving, pottery, and lacquer work; besides morals, arithmetic, physical science, drawing, and drill. The course lasts for from one to two years. There are 15 in this section.

Of 221 graduates of the institute, 160 are teaching in industrial schools, whilst 39 are employed in Government or private factories ; so that its objects seem to be fairly well fulfilled.

Higher Technical School, Osaka.

Organization
and cost.

378. This was established in 1896, in Japan's greatest industrial centre, to meet the necessity of promoting industry after the war with China. As Osaka is a great shipping centre, and as the neighbourhood is noted for the production of *sake* and *soy*, the courses of brewing, shipbuilding, and marine engineering have been made prominent in this school. The students of brewing are almost all the sons of brewers ; and cider, wine, and vinegar are studied as well as *sake* and *soy*. As for these last, it is stated that the bacteriological researches of this school have led to great improvements in method ; the time spent in the manufacture has been shortened, the amount of refuse lessened, the quality much improved, and the quantity greatly increased. Besides the three just mentioned, the Osaka school has sections of mechanical engineering, applied chemistry, dyeing, ceramics, and metallurgy ; eight in all. As at Tokyo a little English is studied. The site of the school covers 240,000 square feet, of the value of £2,800 ; the buildings occupy 85,000 square feet, and cost £21,400. Up to the present the machinery has cost £10,300, books £1,500, models £800, furniture £2,300 ; the regular expenses are rather more than £7,000 a year. The director, who came from some ironworks, draws £250 a year ; there are 16 full professors, drawing from £90 to £180 a year ; 11 teachers of special subjects, such as English or drawing ; 18 assistant teachers, on from £2 to £6 a month ; and 38 artisans, paid from eight pence to two shillings a day. Many of the staff are graduates of the Imperial University ; two are in England, studying shipbuilding and mechanical engineering.

Students and
graduates.

379. In 1902 there were 428 applicants for admission, of whom 153 were enrolled. The total number of students was 353, thus distributed :—mechanical engineering, 128 ; shipbuilding, 49 ; applied chemistry, 45 ; marine engineering, 44 ; brewing, 35 ; metallurgy, 24 ; ceramics, 14 ; dyeing, 14. Almost all

come from middle schools, very few from industrial institutions; ten were Chinese. There is no dormitory, and no supervision of the students. The tuition fee is 30 shillings a year; and the fee for the entrance examination (in June) 4 shillings. Four or five men are made honour students each year; otherwise there are no prizes or scholarships, because there has not been time as yet to accumulate any funds. The graduates find places easily; those who have studied applied chemistry, for instance, may be found in paper mills, in candle factories, in oil-fields, in ironworks, in the Kobe custom-house.

Higher Technical School, Kyoto.

380. In 1899 the Imperial Diet urged the Government to establish a school of industrial fine arts; Kyoto was selected as a suitable centre, and the school was opened in 1902. It possesses sections for dyeing, weaving, and designing, but is not yet fully developed. The land was given by the city, the building (for 300 students) cost £13,000, the apparatus, etc., £14,000. The course covers three years, so that 100 are admitted each year, *viz.*, 40 for designing, 30 for weaving, and 30 for dyeing. Unlike the schools just described, this one takes half its pupils from middle schools, and half from industrial schools; and unlike the higher commercial school of Kobe, which is trying a similar experiment, the Kyoto school sets both sections to work side by side, without any preparatory course. Boys from both sets get prizes, and there is said to be no appreciable difference between them, except that the technical boys are weak in English; for this, however, they can get private tuition. No doubt, the best boys from the middle schools go to the higher schools preparatory to the universities, whilst a slightly inferior class come here; on the other hand, it is the best boys of the technical schools that are likely to enter here, hence the two classes meet on a more equal footing than might have been expected. For English in this school a foreign lady is employed, her husband teaching in two other large schools of Kyoto. The school has no dormitory, and as yet no industrial museum. The annual

Organization
and cost.

fee is to be raised from 30 shillings to £2; at present a student may reckon his monthly expenses at from £2 to 50 shillings.

VIII.—Nautical Education.

Lower grades.

381. Nautical education, like the rest, is of three grades, elementary, middle, and advanced. The lowest grade should be supplied by nautical supplementary schools, and nautical schools of class B; but at present there is only one of the former, and none of the latter. The middle grade is supplied in nautical schools of class A, of which there are now 7, mostly near the Inland Sea. These schools have 51 teachers, and 715 pupils; and their annual expenditure is £8,300, towards which the State contributes about £1,400. Boys who have completed the full primary course, or its equivalent, are admitted, and the course lasts about six years and a half, being divided into navigating and engineering branches. To become officers the graduates have to pass a further examination.

Mercantile
Marine
School.

382. Nautical training of the highest grade is supplied by a Mercantile Marine School at Tokyo, under the control of the Department of Communications. (There are, of course, also the schools and colleges of the Japanese Navy.) This institution, said to be one of the most efficient schools in Japan, was founded by a private company in 1875, but was taken over by the Government ten years later; it trains both navigating and engineering officers for the mercantile marine, but they are liable to be called upon for service in the navy, and the cadets are subjected to naval discipline. The school is housed in a substantial building on reclaimed ground, at the head of Tokyo Bay; and 50 boys, between 15 and 21, are admitted every half year, out of some 400 applicants. The navigators spend 2½ years at the school, then 6 months at a gunnery school, and finally 2½ years as apprentices on sea-going vessels; the engineers spend 2 years at the school, 2 years in workshops, and 1 year as apprentices at sea. Whilst at the school all are resident; they spend the mornings in their classes, the afternoons on a training-ship which lies in a basin close by. The institution also possesses a sea-going training-ship. No fee is charged for

tuition. The staff of the school consists of a director, a secretary, 8 professors, 12 instructors, 8 assistant instructors, 16 lecturers (including 2 foreigners), and 20 clerks. The resident students are 144 in the navigating department, and 88 in the other, or 232 in all: whilst 283 are serving their apprenticeship. Out of this grand total of 515, the honorary cadets, relieved of all expense for special excellence, are 3 in number; 395 are assisted by loans from the State or from mercantile bodies, and 117 pay their own way. The best students from either branch may be sent abroad to complete their training. The graduates of this school receive officers' certificates without further examination, and in such a service as that of the well-known Japan Mail Company begin on about £4 a month.

IX.—Art.

383. The subject of Art education is placed here in accordance with Indian practice; by the Japanese the School of Fine Art and the Academy of Music are counted among "Special" schools. These two, both maintained by Government, are the most important institutions for art training, though there are also some private art schools and societies, some of which teach Japanese painting, some European, some a mixture of both. There are also plenty of technical institutions which give instruction in the application of the fine arts to industry. For systematic musical training there is no other school, though there are many musical societies.

384. In 1876 the Department of Public Works started a school of fine arts, attached to the engineering college, in which painting and sculpture were taught by an Italian artist. This school was closed in 1884; but the Department of Education was in need of drawing masters, and sent a commission abroad to study the organisation and method of art education in Europe and America; the result being the establishment in 1886 of the Tokyo Fine Art School, which has become the chief centre of art education in Japan. Whether the combination of Eastern and Western methods will result in a hybrid of permanent value, remains to be seen; at present the Japanese pictures in European

Institutions
for art
education.

Tokyo Fine
Art School.

style are far from convincing, and the works exhibited by the students of this school in connection with the war provoked the derision of the newspapers.

The school gives instruction in painting, designing, sculpture, and industrial arts, with the object of training professional artists or teachers of drawing. There is a preparatory course of one year, divided into two classes; A, preparatory to painting, designing, and lacquer work; and B, preparatory to sculpture and metal work. The number of weekly hours is 39. The main courses cover 4 years, also with 39 hours a week, and provide for painting; designing; sculpture; chiselling, repoussé and metal work; and lacquering. There are also a post-graduate course of not more than 3 years; a drawing course of not more than 2 years, for teachers of drawing in secondary, normal, or technical schools; and elective courses for the study of special subjects. Candidates for admission must be between 17 and 26, and have to pass an entrance examination in Japanese, mathematics, geography, history, natural science, a foreign language, and drawing. Graduates of middle-schools, however, are admitted on probation without examination; they are taught brush and charcoal drawing for some months, and then if found satisfactory are enrolled as regular students. Graduates or undergraduates of technical schools, "who have shown proficiency in literary attainments," may also be admitted without examination. The teaching staff consists of 18 professors, 13 assistant professors, and 11 lecturers; the annual tuition fee is £2 for each course. The number of students is 320. They enjoy the privilege of deferred conscription; whilst the graduates serve for one year only in the army, and are in most cases granted certificates as teachers in normal and secondary schools. They now number nearly 500, and 60 per cent. are either teachers or practising as professional artists. The annual cost of this school is about £7,000.

Tokyo
Academy of
Music.

385. In 1879 the Educational Department appointed a commission to investigate musical matters, and an expert was obtained from America both to teach music, and to investigate

the theory of Japanese music with a view to the development of a new national style. An Institute of Music was formed in 1883 to study morals, singing, piano, organ, Japanese instruments, harmonics, theory of music, history of music, and method of teaching music. This Institute subsequently took the name of Academy, and was for some years attached to the higher normal school; but in 1899 it was made independent. A preliminary of admission is that the candidate should play a piece of music at sight, and this implies a considerable amount of elementary musical instruction in the country. The students are from 14 to 20 years old, and after several years in the Academy most become teachers. All of them know some English and the text is usually in that language; but foreign airs are also adapted to Japanese text, and *vice versa*.* By general consent the musical results have been more successful than those in painting, and the concerts given by the Academy are said to be really admirable. The staff consists of 8 professors, 8 assistant professors, 5 foreigners, and 24 others; and the annual cost of the institution is about £4,000.

The preparatory course covers one year, with a fee of £1. The principal course, sub-divided into vocal music, instrumental music, and musical composition, covers 3 years, with an annual fee of £1. A post-graduate course of 2 years provides for the study of special subjects without fee. The normal course has two sections, one of 3 years, the other of one only. To the longer are admitted graduates of normal or secondary schools, who can pass an examination in singing and Japanese or English; to the shorter, graduates of higher primary schools, who can pass an examination in singing. No fee is charged, and books and instruments are lent to the students. In addition 30 are made Government students every year, in return for which they must serve as teachers for a certain term after graduation. Finally, elective courses are provided for students of any age

* The Principal, in Watson's *Japan, Aspects and Destinies*, p. 230.

over 14 who wish to study special subjects, a fee of from 2 to 10 shillings a month being charged.

Both male and female students are admitted, the total number being 423; the largest number is in the elective course, the next largest in the longer normal course.

Architecture. 386. One industrial school is returned as teaching the elements of architecture, and the subject is included in the curriculum of the higher technical school at Tokyo; but no students are shown for it there, and the section is probably not yet organised. There remains the architectural course in the college of engineering. This covers 3 years, and in 1903 had 29 students; the general arrangements being such as already described. The college possesses a museum of architecture, containing many models, domestic and foreign, as well as examples of "earthquake-proof" structures.

Chapter XI.—SPECIAL AND MISCELLANEOUS SCHOOLS.

**Special
Schools.**

387. There are various institutions, both public and private, in which higher education is given, and which are classed as Special Schools. Regulations have recently been issued for them, coming into force from 1904. Previously private special schools were required to observe certain rules as to accommodation, staff, etc., and came under supervision so far as their students or graduates enjoyed any privileges; but the new regulations are more stringent, and some of these private schools have proved unable or unwilling to conform to them. Prefectures and cities are permitted to establish public special schools when necessary; but the sanction of the Minister is required for the opening or closing of any such school, public or private. Full details must be submitted, giving the object of the school, its position, proposed rules, number of students, date of opening, expenditure, manner of support, the personal life of the founders (if private persons), the nature of the soil, the drinking water, and the moral and sanitary environment. The school must own the site and buildings, and possess all necessary equipment; the registers and records to be kept are also pre-

scribee. The teachers should be graduates of a Government institution who have the right to be entitled *gakushi* (equivalent to the Master's degree), or persons specially appointed by the Minister, or persons approved of by him; and before engaging a new teacher the director of the school must apply to the Minister, submitting the teacher's *curriculum vita*. Sanction, when given, applies only to that particular engagement. Candidates for admission to the school must be graduates of a middle school, or normal school, or girls' higher school with a four years' course, or of 11 schools recognised as of middle-school rank; or else they must pass a qualifying examination. In any case they must be over 17 in the case of boys, or 16 in the case of girls. The main course of study should last for three years; and rules for discipline are laid down.

The special schools include 15 Government institutions, *viz.*, 5 special schools of medicine, 7 higher agricultural, higher commercial, or higher technical schools, the Fine Art school, the Academy of Music, and the Foreign Languages school. All of these except the last have already been dealt with under other heads. The public special schools are 3 of medicine, and 1 of pharmacy, and have also been referred to. The private special schools, which numbered 46 in 1903 and include such important institutions as the Keiogijiku, the Waseda, and the Women's University at Tokyo, and the Doshisha at Kyoto, may be reserved for the next chapter. There remains, therefore, only the Tokyo School of Foreign Languages.

388. In 1873 the English and French courses of the Kaisei Tokyo school (afterwards Tokyo University) and certain German, Foreign Languages, Russian, and Chinese courses controlled by the Department of School Foreign Affairs, were amalgamated as the Tokyo School of Foreign Languages, which some years later was incorporated with the Commercial School; but the necessity for the study of foreign languages having greatly increased after the war with China, the Imperial Diet got the school reconstituted on an independent basis from 1897. Its object now is to turn out men versed in the languages of those countries with which

Japan is most closely connected, *vis.*, English, French, German, Russian, Spanish, Italian, Chinese, and Korean. The course of study lasts for 3 years. Any one of these languages may be taken as the principal subject, receiving 18 hours a week; and in addition optional subjects aggregating 7 hours must be taken. One of these will be a secondary language (English, French, or German), with 4 hours; the others may be Japanese, Chinese classics, political economy, international law, pedagogics, or philology. Three hours of compulsory drill bring the total up to 28 hours a week. (The arrangements in the Chinese and Korean school are slightly different.) Extra lectures on subjects considered to be useful or necessary are sometimes given; and the school also provides special shorter courses (15 hours weekly for 2 years), and a post-graduate course. The relative popularity of these subjects is shown by the distribution of the students in 1903, when Russian reckoned 74, German 71, English 66, Chinese 64, French 59, Spanish 30, Korean 27, and Italian 19; total, 410 students in the regular course, in addition to whom there were 52 in the post-graduate course, 29 in the elective, and 330 in the special course, making a grand total of 821. The staff consists of a director, 12 professors, 9 assistant professors, 10 foreigners, and 13 other instructors. Candidates for admission must be graduates of middle schools, or of equal attainments; but special students of any language may be admitted at the request of a public office, private company, or school, on adequate reason being shown. Two Indians have studied French there, but the tuition is intended rather for those who know Japanese to begin with. The applicants being three or four times as numerous as the vacancies, an entrance examination is necessary. There is an admission fee of 3 shillings, and an annual tuition fee of 50 shillings; but post-graduate or special students pay less. About 20 in the main course receive Government loan scholarships, worth £10 a year. The annual expenditure of this school is about £6,000.

Miscellaneous 339. Miscellaneous schools are dismissed very briefly by the
Schools. Minister in his annual report. A few years ago he stated that

most were very poorly equipped, those in cities being especially uncertain as regards their existence and the number of their pupils, whilst some were even similar to those conducted by teachers of writing in former times. Since then the report has usually asserted that they were going to decline year after year, though in fact their number seems to rise, and in 1903 there were 1,657 of them, with 106,000 pupils; 29 per cent. were similar to primary schools, 6 per cent. similar to middle schools, and 3 per cent. similar to girls' higher schools, the rest being "others." It is not explained why public bodies should think it worth while to support 423 of such institutions, the average strength of which is only 43 pupils, and the average annual cost less than £9. The private schools, on the other hand, average 71 in strength; some of them prepare pupils for more advanced schools, especially in such a subject as English; and they also include most or all of the mission schools, many of them excellently equipped, to which further reference will be made in the next chapter.

Chapter XII—PRIVATE SCHOOLS.

390. The following is a brief account of the various classes of private schools, as they stood at the beginning of 1903. Classes of
private
schools.

Kindergartens under private management were 30 per cent. of the whole number of kindergartens. They are smaller on the average than the public ones, having 60 children against 105; and better staffed, having one teacher to 25 children, against one to 36.

Primary schools are only 1·2 per cent. of the total, and are discouraged, being forbidden to receive children of the obligatory school-going age, except under special circumstances; in 68 cases, however, they were recognised as substitutes for public establishments. The number of pupils per teacher was practically the same as in the public schools (47); but the percentage of daily attendance was distinctly better (90 against 86).

Blind and Dumb Schools are 90 per cent. of the whole number, but are in most cases poorly equipped and unstable in character.

Middle schools under private management are about 14 per cent. of the whole. The average number of pupils to one teacher was 21, or slightly more than in the public schools (20); one teacher in 66 being a foreigner, as against one in 185 in the public schools.

Girls' schools are less than 9 per cent. of the whole, the mission schools not being included here. In the public schools 65 per cent. of the teachers are females, in the private schools only 58 per cent. In the former one teacher in 1,052 is a foreigner, in the latter one in 54. The number of pupils per teacher is approximately the same, *viz.*, between 18 and 19.

Special schools of a private character are 79 per cent. of the whole, and are said to have multiplied of late years owing to the Government and public institutions being unable to cope with the increasing demand for higher education. They include the largest and most important of private establishments, such as the Keiogijiku, the Waseda University, the Doshisha, the Women's University (referred to further under the head of Female Education), and a number of other "universities," mainly intended for the study of law, politics, and economics. Some of them partake of a religious character, especially the Doshisha (Christian) and two Shinshu universities (Buddhist). Private special schools are thus classified:—Medicine 8, with 1,609 students; pharmacy 4, with 703; politics, economics, and law 15, with 10,829; literature 6, with 1,479; science 3, with 623; others 10, with 690. These schools seem to be well provided with teachers, there being one to every 14 students; and one teacher in 18 is a foreigner.

Technical schools are about 6 per cent. of the whole, and are thus classified:—industrial 2, with 85 pupils; agricultural 4, with 634; commercial 8, with 1,482; apprentices' 2, with 48; and supplementary 35, with 1,839. They average 80 pupils per school, against 67 in the public institutions; and provide one teacher for 14 pupils, against 23 in the latter. One teacher in 29 is a foreigner, against one in 133 in the public schools;

but these foreign teachers are confined to the commercial establishments.

Miscellaneous schools are 74 per cent. of the whole, and are thus classified—similar to primary schools 135, with 7,697 pupils; similar to middle schools 98, with 11,231; similar to girls' higher schools 57, with 7,414; and others 944, with 61,309. The official account of miscellaneous schools is very vague, saying little more than that most of them are going to decline, even whilst the statistics show that they increased by nearly 200 schools and 10,000 pupils in one year. It is clear, however, from the number of foreigners involved that this class must include most, if not all, of the schools under foreign management, or of foreign origin. Each school averages 71 pupils, against 43 in the public schools; and one teacher for 17 pupils, against 55 in the others. Those of primary grade employ 21 foreigners, the middle schools 40, the girls' schools 79, and the others 210. Altogether, one teacher in 15 is a foreigner, while the public miscellaneous schools employ none at all. It seems then that, whatever censure some of them may deserve, the official characterisation of miscellaneous schools as a whole is unnecessarily sweeping. The private schools also reckon nearly 400 foreign pupils.

391. From the foregoing it appears that the most important of private schools are those which fall under the heads of "special" and "miscellaneous;" the former including some institutions of the first rank, the latter many which owe their existence to foreign activity. In the former case it may be difficult to organise and conduct an establishment to rival those of Government, but I could not learn that the promoters had ever encountered any difficulty from Government itself, beyond the claim to a certain amount of supervision. As to the other class, there appear to have been Japanese private schools which attempted to undersell each other, and by their inefficiency attracted the unfavourable attention of the authorities, who then were perhaps led by some anti-foreign or anti-religious bias to

Relations to
Government.

involve the mission schools in the same condemnation ; but the latter part of the case has much improved in the last two or three years, and no well-conducted foreign school now seems to have any ground for complaint. An imperial ordinance was issued in 1899 defining the nature of public supervision as regards the founders, managers, teachers, pupils, equipment, and instruction of private institutions ; and revised rules have recently come into force for schools classed as special, to which reference has already been made. All private schools have to report the qualifications of their staff, and are liable to inspection as regards the carrying out of general regulations ; and where they avail themselves of public money, as in the case of substituted primary schools and some of the technical ones, the supervision and inspection are naturally stricter. Besides this actual inspection, the importance attached by students to the military and other privileges enjoyed by approved schools of the middle grade and upwards, is the most effective means of maintaining their standards. The Educational Department states that there is now practically no fee-cutting amongst private schools ; that, on the contrary, they sometimes urge Government to raise their fees in order that the private schools may do the same ; and that students would soon desert a school which was really inefficient.

Keiogijiku.

392. First amongst private institutions deserving of notice stands the Keiogijiku, founded in the era of Keio which preceded the present era of Meiji (*i.e.*, prior to 1867) by Fukuzawa, the great teacher and author, of whom mention has been made in the first chapter. The school originated, therefore, some years before the abolition of feudalism, and the efforts of its founder, who wished to make it commercial and practical, were looked upon with considerable disfavour for years by many of his brother *samurai*. "It was bad enough for gentlemen who should have been soldiers, to become doctors and lawyers and engineers ; it never entered people's heads at that time that a Japanese man of good family could descend to banking and

other commercial business."* Eventually, the institution became enormously successful, it has turned out between three and four thousand graduates, and is now attended by some 2,000 students of all grades. For it includes facilities for a complete academic career, having primary, middle, higher, and university courses; and is finely situated on high ground, commanding a distant view of Tokyo Bay, with dormitory accommodation for 400. The higher course preparatory to the university covers two years instead of the three of the Government schools; and half of the students who enter on it eventually graduate from one or other of the university courses. These comprise four sections, economics, law, politics, and literature; they reckon 900 students, and cover 3 years. Literature is the least popular, because it leads only to teaching, and that only in private schools, public schools preferring the graduates of public institutions; under this head, an Englishman was teaching a class of five, two hours weekly in grammar, and two in some book, such as the *Tale of Two Cities*. Economics, on the other hand, is the most popular course. The students here belong to a richer class than the average student of the Imperial University, and pay higher fees; the tuition fee in the university course is £4 a year, against 50 shillings in the Government colleges; the boarders pay 17 shillings a month; and all subscribe 6 shillings yearly for games, in which this school is said to excel. There is a library from which books may be taken out. Much is owed to the liberality of the alumni, who hold meetings twice a year, both in Tokyo and in the provinces. Mr. Fukuzawa is now dead; but whilst he lived he took an active part in the life of his school, without teaching any particular subject.

"He associates intimately with the boys, treats them as if they were his own sons, assumes a general direction of matters of amusement, discipline, and study; and is likely to drop into a class-room at any time, and deliver a lecture to the students on the lesson of the day, or on any other subject that may enter his mind. Every week or so he assembles the students and talks to them for an hour or two on politics, history, morals, or the topic which is uppermost in his thoughts at the time."†

* Ransome, *Japan in Transition*, p. 77.

† Curtis, *Yankees of the East*, p. 271

Waseda
University.

393. The Waseda University has grown out of a Special School founded in 1882 by the well-known statesman, Count Okuma, partly because he held that private schools were necessary as well as Government ones, and partly because he wished to see an institution where all the work was done in Japanese. The lack of suitable text-books was a difficulty overcome by making part of the school a publishing office for such—an office which has recently begun to prove remunerative. The school has a reserve fund of £5,000 accumulated out of benefactions, and by means of these, the interest on its funds, and the tuition fees, is able to pay its way. Here also the fees are higher than in the Government colleges, being 6 shillings a month. The students wear “mortar-board” caps, the only ones to be seen in Japan. The university is divided into departments of economics, law, and literature, the courses occupying 3 years; there are besides special courses, also of 3 years, in politics and economics, law, and administrative law; higher normal courses of 3 years in Japanese and Chinese, history and geography, law and economics, and English; and a higher preparatory course of a year and a half. The university has 665 students, the special courses 947, the higher normal courses 288, and the preparatory course 2,330, making 4,290 in all, with more than 200 teachers. The annual expenditure is over £10,000. In addition there are a middle school and a commercial school; and a higher commercial course was to be opened in September, 1904.

Mission
Schools.

394. As indicated in the first chapter, the missionaries were the pioneers of education in Japan, and may be said to have exercised an enormous influence upon the earlier stages of the revolution which has taken place in that country; not only did they teach, but in the persons of Verbeck and others they were the trusted advisers of the Japanese, and by their writings they cleared the way for the study of the language. Following are a few details of their educational activity, taken from Peery's *Gist of Japan* (1897):—

- (1) The Roman church has been active since the reopening of the country, and now claims 50,000 adherents. It

maintains a theological seminary with 46 pupils, 2 colleges with 181, 3 boarding-schools for girls with 171, 26 industrial schools with 764, and 41 primary schools with 2,924.

- (2) The Russian church has had a flourishing mission since 1871, mainly the result of the labours of one man, and claims 22,000 adherents. It maintains a boarding-school for boys with 47 pupils, one for girls with 76, and a theological school with 18.
- (3) Protestant missionaries were sent to Japan as soon as the country was reopened, but for some time they could only teach English, study Japanese, and practise medicine; and it was not until 1873 that the official edicts against Christianity were removed from the public notice-boards. Whilst the pro-foreign movement was at its height the Christian schools were filled with students, the churches and chapels were crowded. About 1888, however, a reaction set in, chiefly due to the failure of the movement for Treaty revision, and the attendance at the schools fell off by half; this reactionary feeling having on the whole persisted to the present time, even though the main cause for it has now been removed. The Congregational, Presbyterian, Reformed, Methodist, Episcopalian, and Baptist missions have between them 38,000 adherents, and maintain 16 boarding-schools for boys with 888 pupils, 50 for girls with 3,096, and some theological schools, besides the Doshisha.

395. The friendly rivalry between the public and the mission schools proved of much advantage to both; whilst the moral tone of the latter has been admitted to be superior, they have in their turn been kept up to the mark intellectually by the excellence of the public schools. Previously to 1899 several of the mission schools were licensed as middle schools, and the securing of such recognition with the privileges which it carries has great effect in increasing the attendance and keeping the

The religious difficulty.

students together. But in that year Count Kabayama, Minister for Education, issued an instruction absolutely prohibiting religious instruction or religious ceremonies in Government schools, public schools, or schools whose curricula were regulated by provisions of law; the last category including the recognised private schools. The managers of the mission schools protested that this instruction was aimed directly at them, and was inconsistent with the religious liberty guaranteed by the constitution; that they regarded religious instruction as essential, and therefore must either close their schools or expose their students to serious disadvantages; and that whilst their general curricula continued to be satisfactory to Government, the latter had no right to interfere with an extra subject such as religious instruction, inasmuch as the schools were entirely supported out of private resources, mainly contributed from abroad. The Department contended, however, that the constitutional right to profess any form of religion did not extend to teaching it; and adhered to its instruction until Count Kabayama went out of office. Subsequently the Department permitted the graduates of certain schools to enjoy the privileges of middle schools as regards admission to higher schools, though the schools themselves were not to be called middle schools. This was regarded as a satisfactory compromise, until in 1902 a regulation was issued requiring the graduates of all schools other than middle schools to pass a special examination preliminary to the higher school entrance examination, a fee of 10 shillings being charged for it. The Department refused to reconsider the matter; but after some negotiations the mission representatives obtained a concession in another direction, the privilege of admission to the Government "special" schools being extended to graduates of "schools recognised as equal or superior to middle schools," and several mission schools being recognised as such. From this the right of admission to "higher" schools followed as a logical consequence, and was formally granted at the beginning of 1904. The military privileges have also been granted; so that the recognised mission schools now enjoy all the privileges

of middle schools, without being quite so restricted in their curricula.

For girls' schools there is no corresponding recognition, and however high their course may be, since they are not "girls' higher schools" in the official sense, their graduates have to pass a qualifying examination before being licensed as teachers. At one time it was difficult for a Christian girl to satisfy the examiners, but at present more liberal views prevail.

396. On the whole, therefore, the position of the mission schools is favourable enough, and their managers concur in saying that nothing could be more liberal and tolerant than the present attitude of the Government. The actual rules regarding religious teaching seem to be interpreted in various ways. Some schools confine the obligatory instruction to the boarders, and the voluntary classes do not attract many; some utilise only hours outside those ordinarily given to secular studies, and do not require attendance at religious services except under the name of "general assembly;" some require attendance at Bible classes and chapel exercises. The compulsory ethical teaching is naturally based on the Bible, whilst some schools have regular courses of Bible study as well, and require examinations as in any other branch. One school declares that it has usually succeeded in gathering into the church about 50 per cent. of the new-comers.

Religions
teaching.

397. A pamphlet by the Rev. A. Pieters reckons up 12 Protestant schools for the higher education of young men in 1904, with 2,700 or more pupils between them. Most of them reported greatly increased attendance, and some were full to their utmost capacity. Their general prosperity is declared to be excellent, "in all the elements of enlarged attendance, increasing public confidence and influence, Government recognition, greater financial resources, and better buildings." In one respect, however, they are "conspicuously deficient," and that is in holding their students in the higher classes. The figures of four schools have been compared for a term of years,

A weakness
in mission
schools.

with the result that the average entering class is 61, whilst the average graduating class is only 6, and even then several of these have probably entered one of the higher classes and not followed the entire course in the same school. In the public schools, on the other hand, few are admitted above the first-year class, and (as shown elsewhere) the ratio of the graduating class to that of the first year is as 12 to 29. Mr. Pieters infers that the mission schools succeed at most only about one-fourth or one-fifth as well as the public schools in holding their pupils. For this the following remedies are suggested:—(a) Improved financial resources, so as to permit of efficient teaching in the higher grades. (b) Special connections with higher institutions, *e. g.*, one school already has an arrangement with the Keiogijiku university, by which its graduates enter the latter without examination. (c) The cultivation of an *esprit de corps* among the students of mission schools. (d) Better appreciation of Christian schools by the Japanese Christians themselves. It appears to be the case that the Christian community are more disposed to patronise the secular than the mission schools. Nor do the latter produce many candidates for the ministry.

Examples of
schools.

398. Appended are a few notes of mission schools visited.

- (1) A school with middle, higher, and theological courses; 200 students; dormitory for 80, with monitors and resident teacher; religious teaching twice a week, and chapel for all every day, about half being Christians. Tuition fee 4 shillings a month; dormitory, 9 shilings for food, 1 for light, a trifle for hot water.
- (2) A middle school with 500 boys and 31 teachers; religious teaching only in the dormitory, which holds 70 or 80, mostly Christians. The corresponding girls' school had 160 girls, of whom 50 were boarders; with a secondary course of 5 years, and a higher one of 2. Christianity said to make little way with day students.
- (3) A middle school with 350 boys and 24 teachers; 30 or 40 in the dormitory, with a permanent Japanese house-master. Daily religious instruction in the dormitory, and a weekly voluntary lesson for each class. Fee recently raised to 48 shillings a year, but the school quite full, and 60 applicants for a few casual vacancies. Lower classes very regular in attendance, upper ones less so; and some symptoms of a strike last term. On teachers no religious

qualification is imposed, but two-thirds are Christians; their pay from £3 to £6 monthly.

- (4) A school with middle, collegiate, and theological courses; 230 students, mostly in the middle school. The board of directors consists of an equal number of missionaries and of Japanese Christians. Daily religious services, all being required to attend. For the middle school an entrance examination fee of 1 shilling, entrance fee 2 shillings, monthly tuition fee 2 shillings. The collegiate course is of a literary character, and covers 3 years. This school also maintains an Industrial Home, where 70 students can live and earn a part of their support. The Home possesses a printing press, a bookshop, a dairy, and a vegetable farm; and students earn money also by carrying newspapers, and selling *soy* (sauce). They work for 3 hours a day, or 5 when they have no school; and are paid 3 farthings an hour, or 5s. 4d. a month. They provide their own clothes and bedding, and pay 6s. 7d. a month for board and room. On entering a boy must deposit 6 shillings, then 2 shillings a month for two months, and then at least 5 per cent. of his earnings. If he has stayed at least a year, and his conduct has been good, this amount is repaid with interest.
- (5) A French Catholic school, with 350 boys in primary and middle departments. French is taught in the regular hours; English and religion in extra hours in the afternoon; all take English, about 70 or 80 the religious teaching. About half of these are Catholics, the rest must have the written permission of their parents.
- (6) Another school belonging to the same mission, but mainly of a commercial character, though there is also a primary course for Japanese, and another for European boys, availed of by Russians from Port Arthur, Vladivostok, etc., about a dozen of whom were stranded here by the outbreak of war. The primary course covers 5 years, and the secondary 4. The tuition fees are from 6 to 10 shillings a month in the primary department, and from 12 to 14 in the other; or considerably more than in public schools. The boarding charge is £2 for foreign fare, 15 shillings for Japanese.
- (7) A school with 190 girls, 96 being boarders. The girls do all the necessary sewing, clean the rooms, and help with the cooking.
- (8) A school with 240 girls, 60–70 in the dormitory. Fee 4 pence monthly in the primary classes, 1 shilling in the others. In the dormitory, 1 shilling for rent, and 8 for food. Teachers, 2 foreigners, 10 Japanese (4 being men), and 3 pupil-teachers. The girls live in Japanese rooms, eat Japanese food, do a good deal of work for themselves, and spend the vacations at home, so that there is no reason to suppose that they get spoilt. But if one is punished all the class is liable to side with her, and to threaten a strike.
- (9) A school now about 30 years old, unnoticed by Government prior to the revision of the treaties, but after that duly inspected and licensed. Nearly 200 girls, half being in the dormitory under a Japanese matron. Monthly

fees, tuition 3 shillings, dormitory 10. A secondary course of 5 years, above the Government standard, so much so that a graduate of a public school is scarcely fit for the third year here; and a collegiate course of 3 years, with a considerable choice of literary or scientific subjects. For the former 26—30 hours a week, for the latter at least 18. To discourage overpressure the marks are not declared, and the examination counts only $\frac{1}{4}$ of the total. Teachers, 6 foreigners, 12 Japanese; 4 of the latter are men, but it is difficult to get good men to work under a foreigner, and especially under a woman. The girls live in Japanese style, and clean their rooms, but no longer do any cooking, since it interfered with the class work and proved wasteful. They give little trouble, but untruthfulness is a common failing, and 19 of the eldest once went on strike. Some become teachers or take up other work, but most simply marry and settle down.

The
Doshisha.

399. There remains the most ambitious of mission institutions, the Doshisha at Kyoto. In 1864 a young man named Neesima escaped from Japan by stealth on board an American schooner, on which he worked his passage for nearly a year to Boston, where the owner put him to school. In 1872 the Japanese embassy under Iwakura sent for Neesima to serve them as an interpreter, to which he agreed on the condition that he was granted a full pardon for the capital offence of leaving Japan without permission, and was allowed to return there to teach English and Christianity. At the end of 1874 Mr. Neesima, now ordained, returned to his country, and started his Doshisha school with 8 pupils. In spite of the opposition of the local authorities and the Buddhist priests it succeeded sufficiently for him to plan to convert it into a university. To theological and collegiate classes a girls' school, a preparatory department, a hospital and training school for nurses were successively added; a variety of brick and stone buildings were erected; and in 1889 a Mr. Harris gave £20,000 for a science school. When Dr. Neesima died in 1890 his school numbered nearly 700 young men and over 200 girls; but from this time it began to go downhill. It was a time of reaction and anti-foreign sentiment; the Japanese appeared to resent foreign interference with educational matters; and the native members of the Doshisha board of trustees, in an effort to secure Government privileges, abrogated the unchangeable articles of the constitu-

tion (affirming its Christian character), and proceeded so far in an anti-Christian direction that all the missionaries who were serving as professors resigned. But after the enormous amount of money expended on the institution the American Board did not like to cut the Doshisha adrift; eventually a new board of trustees was formed, and the institution was brought back more or less to its original lines. This period of internal dissension naturally did it much harm; the numbers and the funds fell off; the theological department, the Harris Science school, and the movement for a Christian university were all suspended, though the first-named has now been restarted. Peace having been restored, the Mission now pays the salaries of some of the professors, and has 3 representatives on the board. At present there are 444 male students (one-half of whom are boarders), and 150 girls. Most of the former are in the middle school, but there is also a higher course of Foreign Languages, now officially recognised as a "special school," with 35 students. The relations between the teachers and the pupils are said to be more intimate here than in the public schools; and the dormitories (of which there are 13) are managed on democratic principles under captains. The monthly boarding fee is about 10 shillings; the tuition fee 36 shillings a year. The annual cost of the institution is about £2,000. On the male students' side the faculty includes professors of theology (5), chemistry and physiology, Chinese, Japanese, drawing, physics and mathematics, natural history, English (9), philosophy, practical ethics, ethics and logic, physics, sociology, modern languages, and mathematics; besides 6 instructors. The girls' school has 4 professors of English, 7 of other subjects, and instructors in penmanship, drawing, sewing, and "ceremonial tea."

400 At one time the mission schools played a prominent part in the educational world, and it is still admitted that they have cultivated a higher moral standard than the public schools; but the anti-foreign reaction, the conflict with Government over the privileges of graduates, and the internal dissensions of the

Value of the
mission
schools.

Doshisha, all tended to impair their position, and there has been much controversy over the question of their continuance. It was argued that those which conformed to the Government standards practically became secular schools, and even then were ill-fitted to compete with the well-equipped public institutions, unless an amount of money were expended on them, which the missions could hardly afford. Part of the force of this objection has been removed by the present liberality of the Government in the matter of religious teaching; but Dr. Peery, himself a member of a mission which does not practise educational work, censures the erection of large and costly buildings which it will be impossible for the native churches to take over and maintain, when they become self-supporting. He denies that mission schools are needed for the preparatory training of evangelists, since more than half of the present workers have been satisfactorily educated elsewhere, and the graduates of the mission schools do not become evangelists. He denies also that Christian schools need be provided for the children of native Christians, until the latter demand them and are ready to support them. He concludes, therefore, that these expensive schools are no longer necessary, considering the excellent provision made everywhere by the Japanese authorities. Theological training, indeed, is necessary, but here also too much time has been spent over English, which is after all imperfectly understood, when the instruction should have been given in the vernacular; and the sending of young men to America and England for theological training has nearly always proved a mistake, the men coming back unfitted for their position and work in Japan. Dr. Peery, in fact, is sincerely convinced * that "most of the money now being used for educational purposes in Japan is misapplied, and would yield far greater results if used in other ways."

The girls' schools.

401. Over the girls' schools there has been less controversy, partly because the Government has made less provision for

* *The Gist of Japan*, pp. 251-5.

female education than for that of boys. But here also Dr. Peery has his faults to find. It is admitted that most of the girls have become Christians, but "the course is too long, and the instruction given too advanced. In many of these schools the girls are kept for 12 or 14 years. During all this time they are more or less supported by mission funds, even down to pin-money. Latin and Greek, biology, geology, psychology, and many other things are taught them that they neither need nor can appreciate. Girls are made to practise on a piano for 10 years or more, who will in all probability never see a piano again. Such a life does not fit a pupil for life in her humble home, with its thatched roof, narrow walls, and homely duties, where her time must be spent in boiling rice and mending old clothes." Even the native evangelists are said to prefer as wives girls who have never been in a mission school, on this very ground that the latter are likely to be discontented. On the other hand, there are those who say that they would sooner see the preachers recalled than the teachers; and that mission schools are absolutely necessary, so long as public education cultivates the intellect only and neglects the morals. This last seems a surprising statement in view of the moral qualities displayed by the Japanese, from the highest to the lowest, in the present war; and Dr. Peery's account seems equally exaggerated so far as the schools visited by me are concerned. Circumstances may have changed, and school-managers have learned prudence since Dr. Peery wrote; and the English schools seem always to have been simpler than the American; but, except for the more substantial character of some of the buildings, there was little visible difference between the appearance and fittings of the mission schools and those of the ordinary public schools for girls. In their dormitories the girls live in Japanese style, and they spend a good bit of the year at home; moreover, in one large school it was stated that, whereas for the country at large one marriage in three or four ends in a divorce, out of 200 married graduates only 10 or 15 had been divorced.

Chapter XIII.—FEMALE EDUCATION.

Former
position of
women.

402. It is generally agreed that the status of woman in Japan has always been rather different from, and superior to, that which she has held in any other Asiatic country. In the earliest times the two sexes seem to have been on almost equal terms; women sat on the throne, they went out hunting, they engaged in war, they wrote books; and this even after their position had begun to be sapped by the introduction of Indian and Chinese ideas on the subject. Whilst the men devoted themselves increasingly to Chinese letters, the women continued to cultivate their own language; and Mr. Aston, the historian of Japanese literature, knows of no parallel in the history of European letters to "the remarkable fact that a very large proportion of the best writings of the best age of Japanese literature was the work of women." But Buddhist views of female unworthiness were powerfully reinforced by the theory and practice of China, where the sex was regarded as both physically impure and mentally defective; it became necessary for women of real ability to disguise their attainments under a mask of gentle ignorance; and the militant character of the turbulent Middle Age in Japan, when science and letters were practically monopolised by the monks, weakened their position still further. The process was completed in the Tokugawa period, when Chinese influence reached its maximum in the ruling class, and woman became, as a Japanese has said, "entirely submerged." The exaggerated doctrine of filial piety, together with polygamous practices, left them at the mercy of parents and husband; virtuous women led a retired life, and that companionship which their wives were not educated to afford them was sought by men in the society of *geisha* and professed courtesans. The change was closely parallel to that exhibited by the social life of ancient Greece, where, under the influence of Oriental ideas, the freedom and respect accorded to women in the Homeric Age were converted into the seclusion of the Attic period, and the professional *hetaira* became the most prominent type of the sex.

403. When all is said, however, the position of women in Japan never sank as low as in India and China themselves. ^{Former education of women.}

Though expected to lead a retired life, they were not, I think, actually shut up; and though moral training was regarded as of infinitely more importance than intellectual, the latter was never entirely denied them. The Government, indeed, did not meddle with female education; but the girls of the lower classes could attend the *terakoya* schools, whilst the *samurai* girls received instruction at home from private tutors. The education considered most appropriate for them was in household management, etiquette, music, decoration, and the handling of certain weapons; but training of a more literary character was also open to them. Besides the elements of reading, writing, and arithmetic, many of them learned enough Chinese characters to be able to study certain books of which every respectable family until recently possessed copies, and which are still read by the old-fashioned. These books are briefly described by Dr. Griffiths as follows.* "The Great Learning for Women" was a moral treatise founded on the Chinese classics, the "Small Learning" being an introduction to it. "Woman's Household Instruction" dealt with duties relating to furniture, dress, the reception of guests, and other domestic details. Then there were "Moral Lessons" in paragraphs, a "Lady's Letter-writer," stories of 24 model Chinese children, collections of poems, lives of model women, information about the almanac, etc., commonly bound up in one volume, and studied until graven upon the memory. Some *samurai* girls were also able to read the standard Japanese histories. But of all the books the most important was the "Great Learning for Women" which has been translated by Professor Chamberlain. A few sentences will show its tenor—

"The only qualities that befit a woman are gentle obedience, chastity, mercy, and quietness."

"After marriage her chief duty is to honour her father-in-law and mother-in-law, to love and reverence them with all ardour, and to tend them with every practice of filial piety.... She must abandon herself to their direction..... must sew their garments and prepare their food."

* *The Mikado's Empire*, p. 558.

"The five worst maladies that afflict the female mind are indocility, discontent, slander, jealousy, and silliness. Without any doubt these five maladies infest seven or eight out of every ten women."

"Such is the stupidity of her character that it is incumbent on her in every particular to distrust herself and to obey her husband.....She should look on her husband as if he were Heaven itself."

The three
obediences,

404. The moral teaching centred round the "three obediences"—obedience to parents as a child, obedience to her husband and his parents as a wife, obedience to her eldest son as a widow. This was carried so far that multitudes of women were (and are) sold to a life of shame, in order to help their families or their husbands. If the father or the husband was in pecuniary difficulties, there was nothing to protect the woman; public opinion was in favour of the man's making what he could out of her. And if he were well off, there was equally nothing to protect her against open infidelity, or the introduction of concubines into the house; public opinion was again on the husband's side as long as he did not exceed his means. The wife was liable to divorce on flimsy pretexts, not merely if she did not get on with her husband, but if she did not get on with his family; and if divorced she lost her children. The only check on divorce was the fear that her unjust dismissal might be resented by her family as an insult. No doubt, however, as in other countries, the conditions of actual life were more tolerable than might be inferred simply from the acknowledged customs, and there is a remarkable consensus of opinion in favour of the womanly qualities of the female sex in Japan, whether these have been developed in spite of their training, or because of it. The latest rhapsody on the subject is from the pen of Mr. Lafcadio Hearn*:

"Before this ethical creation criticism should hold its breath, for there is here no single fault save the fault of a moral charm unsuited to any world of selfishness and struggle..... Perhaps no such type of woman will appear again in this world for a hundred thousand years.....Her delicacy, her supreme unselfishness, her child-like piety and trust, her exquisite tactful perception of all ways and means to make happiness about her.....The Japanese woman realised at least the ideal of a Buddhist angel."

* *Japan*, p. 393

Strange that the "Buddhist angel," when invested with the rank of a mother-in-law, should so often devote her energies to making life intolerable for a younger angel! For the curse of many a household in Japan, as in India, has been the mother-in-law; and a Japanese woman married to a foreigner is envied by her sisters for her freedom from this incubus.

405. It was¹ laid down by the great Ieyasu that, marriage ^{The age of marriage,} being the first law of nature, one should not live alone after the age of 16. Nevertheless, it is said that in many parts a *samurai* never married before thirty. Amongst common people early marriages, though not universal, were the rule—early, that is, from the European point of view, but never to the extent that is practised in India. Children were sometimes promised to each other by the parents, early in life; in other cases a suitable match was made by the parents, through a matchmaker, when the proper time arrived. The *samurai* were not supposed to intermarry with the classes below them, though the love of a *samurai* for an outcast *eta* maiden is the theme of many a romance. Widows seldom remarried.

406. The new era in Japan has naturally been marked by ^{The new era,} considerable outward changes in the status of women; increased educational facilities have been afforded to them, their legal position has been modified by the new codes, and the various classes are free to intermarry. Whether there has been any great change on the inner side is a question on which there is a difference of opinion, but it seems probable that the Western leaven is working here also, slowly and silently. As early as 1871 the Emperor approved a proposal to send a few girls of good families to America to be educated, on the express ground that the better education of the sex would tend to raise it in public esteem; to which other leaders of Japanese opinion added that a permanent improvement in future generations presupposes an improvement in the parents of both sexes, and that all countries which have attempted to work with the male sex alone have fallen signally behind in the march of progress. The missionaries had already

made a beginning of female education in Japan itself, and for some years it remained chiefly in their hands, at least as regards the secondary grade; into the primary schools girls were freely admitted from the first. The Empress, herself brought up on old-fashioned lines, has always shown an interest in the improved education of the sex; and her example in encouraging the Peeresses' school did much to develop the fashion of female education, which reached its height about 1890. Soon after that a reaction set in, the general character of which is expressed in an advertisement of a girls' school, promising that they should receive Japanese food and live in the Japanese way, no religious instruction or books being allowed them except at the formal request of their parents.* It was not only that the prominent association of foreigners with girls' schools caused the latter to share the general disfavour with which the former were then regarded, but the reformers had apparently proceeded too fast. In some cases, at least, Japanese girls had been brought up on American lines, and were discontented when they returned home to the "three obediences," whilst their relatives were equally dissatisfied. For the men had not had time to adjust themselves to the new conditions; most of them looked upon foreign women as clumsy and ill-mannered, if not positively immodest; and the conservatives were shocked to find that their own girls were acquiring similar characteristics. The mission schools engaged teachers of Japanese etiquette for their pupils; but even Mr. Fukuzawa was obliged to admit that progress had been too rapid. Still he regarded the reaction as temporary only, maintaining that there was no essential reason why an educated Japanese woman should not be as refined and obedient as an ignorant one, whilst occasional unruly spirits may develop amongst the uneducated as well as amongst those who have been sent to school.

Fukuzawa's
views.

407. A "New Great Learning for Women" was published by Mr. Fukuzawa, in which he urged that all girls, rich or poor,

* Curtis, *Yankees of the East*, p. 389.

should receive instruction in their vernacular, in letter-writing, in calculation, the keeping of accounts, needlework, housekeeping, and cooking. Higher education, again, seemed to him as useful to girls as to boys, but the subjects particularly required were physics, physiology and the laws of health, geography, history, law and economics. The last two might appear strange, but a knowledge of them would not only develop women's intelligence, but enable them to deal with their husbands' affairs in an emergency, and exercise an influence in society which was at present denied to them. It was well, too, that mothers should know enough to gain the respect of their children. He strongly urged that girls should be plainly dressed and allowed plenty of exercise, the best of food without exercise being harmful rather than beneficial. Marriages had best be arranged by the parents, Japanese society not having yet reached a stage of development at which men and women could mix freely and make their own selections; at the same time parents have no right to force sons or daughters into unions which are distasteful to them. The mother-in-law difficulty might be avoided by allowing the new couple to live in a separate house; and accordingly Mr. Fukuzawa settled his married children round about his own house, but even he could not refrain from some interference with their affairs. Lastly, he was of opinion that a woman left a widow at the early age of 20 or 30 might as well marry again.

408. The reaction against which Fukuzawa worked had the effect of narrowing the sphere of female education, the moral and practical sides being emphasized at the expense of the intellectual; the object was to turn out "good wives and mothers." But almost unconsciously men seem to have been led to think that better educated wives might be better companions for themselves and better mothers for their children; to see, at all events, some disparity between the position in which the conservatives would leave women, and the position which Japan is claiming for herself in every other respect. Mr. Curtis, in his *Yankees of the East*, published in 1896, quotes a "professional woman-educator" ^{Present feeling toward female education.}

as saying that the ordinary educated Japanese did not care for wives with a modern education ; they wanted a good housekeeper, an amiable and agreeable servant, and one who would submit herself entirely to their will. The same authority went on to say that the number of girls in the higher grades of schools was 75 per cent. less than it had been six or seven years before, and that it was from the middle classes that the chief opposition came. If this correctly represents the views held at that date, even the few years which have since elapsed have seen a considerable change in public opinion. They have seen, at any rate, an enormous increase in the number of secondary schools for girls and in pupils. In 1892 there were 27 public and private higher schools for girls, with 2,803 pupils ; in 1897 the pupils had increased to 6,800 ; but in 1902 the schools numbered 80, the pupils 21,500, besides the 57 "miscellaneous" schools of a similar character, with their 7,400 girls. Some of these last have courses of a more advanced type, and an independent Women's University has recently been founded. So far, however, there is no great demand for higher or specialised instruction unless in the case of female teachers, though some observers think that the demand will come before long, and that the Government will have to take steps to meet it, girls being at present excluded from all the higher institutions. But in respect of secondary education public opinion is now decidedly in favour of it, and even when old-fashioned parents would keep their daughters away, the latter often insist on attending. Young men, too, now look for wives who have had some education of a literary as well as domestic character. In India it is the boy whose value in the matrimonial market rises with every examination that he passes, but in Japan the girls are finding that to have graduated from a secondary school appreciably improves their prospects. Two small evidences may be mentioned. In the last two or three years matrimonial advertisements have begun to appear in the Japanese papers, and in these the educational qualification is always emphasized. Again, in an old-fashioned district of the west coast there is a temple of an ancient Shinto deity, adjoined by a 'bam-

boo grove, where it is the fashion for young men to carve their matrimonial aspirations on the bamboos; and several of these contain the petition, addressed to the deity, "Please give me a graduate of a girls' higher school."

40 . It may be asked whether recent changes have produced any marked effect on the general status of women. So far as their legal status is concerned, their position has been greatly improved by the new codes. A woman can now become the head of a family; she can inherit, own, and administer property; she can exercise parental authority, adopt, act as a guardian, etc. That any great change has taken place in practice does not seem to be the case; but most foreign residents who are in a position to judge appear to think that Japanese women are fairly well off, often better off than women of the middle class in Europe or America, who are simply household drudges, and that they enjoy a considerable amount of freedom. Whether this is due to foreign influence or not, is disputed; but it seems difficult to believe that foreign example and modern education are not working a silent change in this respect. It has often been remarked that a woman's treatment depends partly on the dress she wears; if she is in Japanese costume, she walks behind her husband and is treated as his servant; but if she is wearing European dress she takes precedence. The chief difficulty at present is that, beyond getting married and keeping house, there is so little for women to do. The one profession that is freely open to them is that of teaching, but the pay is small, and they are never put in charge of a school, being considered still incapable of administration. The female lawyer has not yet appeared, but a small number of women have been trained as doctors in private schools, those of the Government not being open to them. In some parts it is said that their services are preferred, but on the whole there is no special demand for lady doctors, and the circumstances are widely different from those of India. There is no *purdah* system; Japanese women are more accustomed to associate with men, for instance at the bath, and they have not the least objection to being

treated by male physicians. As for other occupations, Mr. Curtis mentions* one lady as taking an active part in politics, and another as the guiding spirit of a great banking firm, into which she had introduced some educated women as clerks. Other private companies have tried the experiment of female clerks, and a few women have become journalists. The post-office has nothing to do with them except at Nagasaki, where there are five; but telephone exchanges employ women, and they are to be found issuing tickets at a few of the big railway stations, where rumour says that the services of a man have occasionally to be called in to calculate the change. I have seen a couple of women in a public office helping a silkworm expert, and it is possible that one result of the present war will be an increased demand for the services of that sex. Coming lower down in the social scale, a large number of girls and women are now employed in filatures and factories of various kinds, in which it is to be feared that the hours and conditions of labour are of the worst. The factories of Osaka are said to employ girls from the age of six upwards; they work 11 hours a day in an atmosphere impregnated with dust and cotton, and in a temperature varying from 84° to over 100° Fahr. Their pay is from one penny to eight pence a day, and they are lodged in boarding-houses, where 12 persons occupy a room 12 feet square, and where they are locked in to prevent escape.

Present
conditions
of marriage.

410. The conditions of marriage have been somewhat affected by two causes—the higher education of men and compulsory military service. Legally, the minimum age for marriage is 17 for a man and 15 for a woman; custom threw the actual age a little later, but a girl who was not married by 19 or 20 did not have much further chance. As regards the girls, there has been no great change; they are commonly married between 17 and 20. But for men the age tends to fall much later, from 20 to 23 in the lower classes, from 25 to 30 in the upper. The ordinary military service of three years beginning at the age of 20, young men wait to see

* *Yankees of the East*, pp. 38, 186.

the result before they take steps to get married; whilst those who pursue higher studies are allowed to postpone their service till 28, and then serve for one year, all of which brings them to the age of 30 or so before they can conveniently marry. Some men defer marriage until they are earning enough to support a family; others deny themselves that they may contribute their earnings to their parents or other relatives. Many women remain unmarried. The children in the primary schools are thought too young to be addressed on the subject, at an age when in India they are often already bridegrooms and brides; but in the secondary schools some teachers of morals warn their pupils against the evils of premature marriage. Throughout his academic course the average Japanese student is unharassed by those cares of the husband or father which disturb the minds, or spoil the careers, of so many students in India. Marriages are still commonly arranged by the parents through a go-between, and in the provinces children are sometimes betrothed without their knowledge; but it is more usual to afford the young people an opportunity of seeing each other. As the son has to live with his parents after marriage, he generally thinks it prudent to accept their choice, and the bonds of filial piety lie heavy upon the girl. Nevertheless, there are cases where one or the other objects to the match proposed, and it is becoming less and less possible for parents to force on a marriage under such circumstances. Mr. Gulick, a missionary, states that both boys and girls frequently run away from home, if no other resource presents itself. On this point, also, the effect of higher education is showing itself; the highly educated, especially those who have come under foreign influence, sometimes betray a desire to choose for themselves, and an unwillingness to marry those of whom they know nothing, and for whom they care nothing. Further, a custom has been growing up lately, especially in Tokyo, of stipulating that the bride shall not be required to live in the same house as her parents-in-law. But whatever may be said as to the relative merits or demerits of any system of marriage, Eastern or Western, that there is something fundamentally wrong with the Japanese arrangements

appears from the frequency of divorce. For the ten years ending 1901 the yearly average of divorces was 99,000 to 380,000 marriages, that is, more than a quarter of the marriages ended in divorce, though many women will endure almost anything rather than be deprived of their children. In France, where the population is smaller, but divorces are not difficult to obtain, there are about 9,000 in a year;* in England the petitions for divorce or judicial separation are about 700. But in spite of easy divorces, the annual marriage rate in Japan is low, being only from 8 to 10 per 1,000 of the population, against 16½ in England and Wales. The number of illegitimate children grows, being nearly 8 per cent. of those born alive in 1898, as against 4 per cent. in the United Kingdom; and concubinage is admitted to have greatly increased owing to the material prosperity of the country. It is evident that in all such respects any improvement in the position of women depends more on a change of sentiment amongst the men than on the higher education of girls. The men must do their share in bridging the gulf which at present exists between the school-girl and the wife, and in solving the difficult problem of reconciling the gentle obedience and refinement of the old system with the greater self-confidence and independence which the new is likely to bring with it. The process of adjustment may be slow and attended by much suffering to individuals, but there are signs that it has made some progress even in the last few years.

On the physical side, the principle that the progress of a nation depends on its women as much as on its men has been more readily accepted, and girls share the attention now devoted to the physical training and welfare of boys.

Primary
education.

411. Primary education is as obligatory upon girls as boys, but for many years the former were extremely backward in attendance. In 1890, however, it was officially declared that "female education was the source from which general education

* These statistics are taken from *Round the World through Japan*, by W. Del Mar.

must be diffused over the country," and energetic measures were taken to encourage attendance, with the result that the girls have nearly caught up the boys. Even the old-fashioned districts are being penetrated by the railway, the country people are beginning to realise what is being done elsewhere, and the battle, as far as the ordinary primary course goes, is practically won. Many parents, however, withdraw their girls from school at the conclusion of this period, and the ratio of pupils of the higher course to those of the lower, which is as 1 to 3 in the case of boys, is only as 1 to 7 in that of girls. A few manage to get some further scraps of schooling in the form of "supplementary" classes. Of those who do continue their studies a fair proportion complete the full higher course of four years.

412. After the primary stage the education of girls is separated from that of boys, being imparted in Girls' Higher Schools, ^{Secondary education.} which are intended to do for the girls of the upper and middle classes what the middle-schools do for the boys. But whereas many of the boys are preparing themselves for a still higher and more specialised training, with the girls, so far as public arrangements are concerned, the higher school is the final place of education. Soon after leaving it they may expect to get married, and to have to assist their husband's mother or sisters in keeping house. Hence the object of their education here is officially declared to be "to form character, and to impart knowledge calculated to make good wives and wise mothers."

Higher Schools for Girls.

413. These schools have all been founded since the Restoration, the first being the Tokyo Girls' School, opened by the Department in 1872, and a prefectural school at Kyoto. From that time female education went on pretty steadily until after 1890, when a reaction set in. In 1892 there were only 8 public to 19 private schools, 13 of which were in Tokyo; but "owing partly to well-grounded censure," says the official account, "and partly to mere doubt with regard to the results of such education," the number of private schools rapidly declined.

Five years later there were only 6, to 20 public schools, the latter having sprung up to some extent along with the general growth of education after the war with China. After a close investigation of female education at home and abroad, an ordinance on the subject was published in 1899, and every prefecture was commanded to establish at least one such school. In 1900 the regulations were revised, the number of hours limited, and examinations discouraged. Two years later detailed instructions as to the course of teaching were issued, as had already been done to the middle schools, in order to secure greater uniformity of standard. In consequence of the new orders numerous schools were founded, until now they number 80, of which 1 belongs to Government (being a practising school for the higher normal school for females in Tokyo), 72 are public, and 7 private.

Establish-
ment, distri-
bution, and
size.

414. Girls' higher schools being secondary institutions for general education, their establishment is obligatory on prefectures; but rural districts, cities, towns, villages, and private persons may also establish them, provided that they do not thereby interfere with the prior claims of primary education. The prefecture may, however, fulfil its obligation by subsidising other schools, if the standard of these is considered sufficiently high by the Department of Education. One prefecture was still without a girls' school in 1902, but the remaining 46 possessed 72 between them, four having four schools apiece, two three, and ten two. If we compare the respective facilities for girls and boys, we find that there were 80 schools in all for the former, against 258 for the latter; whilst there were 21,000 girls in attendance, as against 94,000 boys. One girls' school was provided for, on the average, 1,830 square miles of area and 575,000 of population. The Government school had 319 pupils with 13 teachers, whilst the average strength of a public school was 266 girls with 14 teachers, and that of a private school 288 girls with 15 teachers. This gives 25 pupils to each teacher in the Government school, 18 in a public, and 19 in a private

institution. But schools of four, five, or even six hundred were encountered.

415. Girls' schools are under the supervision of the prefect-^{Supervision,} ural inspectors, who go through the books and watch the classes for a few minutes. The departmental inspector from Tokyo may also pay them a visit once in two or three years; he "just looks," as one teacher put it. There are no female inspectors in Japan, and no arrangements for inspecting the distinctively female portion of the work. Private schools which receive any aid from public money are also inspected. In the case of a girls' school the only Government privilege to be secured is the right to a teaching licence without further examination, and this is refused to the mission schools, which are not girls' higher schools in the official sense.

416. The general rules for organisation and equipment are ^{Buildings and equipment,} similar to those for middle schools, except that less space is required for science, while there must be special rooms for sewing and music. A covered exercise-room, and space for play and for drill, are considered essential. The buildings are of the usual wooden type, set in a large bare compound; in public schools they probably always belong to the school, only 0.3 per cent. of the total expenditure being assigned to "rent for grounds and houses." In 1902 more than 57 per cent. of the whole was expended on new buildings, and only 1.4 on repairs. The class-rooms are, as usual, airy and well lit, with desks for 30 or 40 girls in each, and ample black-boards, but bare walls; the corridors are often furnished with spittoons. There is generally a small reference library for the teachers, and perhaps a reading-room with some periodicals for the girls; but here, as elsewhere, general libraries are deficient. Most schools have a dormitory for perhaps 50 or 60 girls out of the total number, with matted rooms in the Japanese style, a room of 18 mats, *i.e.*, 18 feet square, accommodating six girls. In some places the electric light is available. There is, however, no dormitory in what is considered a model school just now, the Third Girls'

School of Tokyo Prefecture, the pupils being mostly resident in Tokyo, and the remainder lodging with their sureties. This school is well placed in an isolated position, on rising ground, with plenty of room behind for running about and tennis. It is two-storied, of wood, with nine-foot corridors, spacious class-rooms, and a large hall capable of accommodating a thousand persons; there are also rooms for historical and geographical collections, and for specimens of natural history, many of the biological and other diagrams having been executed in the school itself. The black-boards are of cloth pasted on a board and lacquered black, the lacquer being partially rubbed off again; the surface seemed good, and was said to last for 3 years. Etiquette is taught in a separate little building, completely fitted up as a Japanese house. A large room is provided for the reception of parents and friends, and adjoining it another where are exhibited specimens of the girls' drawing and penmanship; not show examples, but ordinary work, so that any parent can see what a girl is doing. In the director's office are posted statistics of the parents, together with a special sheet showing the names of fathers or brothers now on active service, with their whereabouts, and fate, if killed, wounded, or captured. The school is intended to accommodate 600 girls in 15 classes, but two of these are not yet organised, and the cooking class-room is not ready. Up to the present time the building has cost £11,000 and the furniture about £1,300. The whole area includes 201,000 square feet (of which 36,000 have been built upon), and cost about £9,000. The staff of this school at present consists of a director and 24 teachers, 9 of whom are men, and the annual cost of working is now £1,600. In another case the land had been obtained by exchange, and the building (for 360 girls) had cost £6,600; whilst in two more cases, schools with 200 and 400 girls respectively, had each cost £4,000 to build.

School life.

417. The majority of the pupils in public girls' schools are day students; in the cases inquired into, out of 2,300 pupils only 340 were boarding in school dormitories. The school year is

similar to that of middle schools; and so are the school hours, classes working from 8 to 2, or from 9 to 3, according to the season, with a recess between 12 and 1, and 10 minutes' interval in each hour. The weekly hours may not exceed 30. In the dormitory the girls commonly have their supper about 5-30 or 6 o'clock, after which they rest for an hour, and then do some work until bedtime comes at 9 or 9-30. The practice of setting home lessons is somewhat deprecated, partly because in private houses there is not sufficient control exercised to secure that the lessons are done, and the girls in bed, by a reasonable hour; but so far as the ordinary schools are concerned, the pupils seem generally to do from two to three hours' work in the evening. The dormitory is supervised by one or more teachers, who get perhaps 5 shillings a month extra for doing so; the boarders pay from 10 to 12 shillings a month. They are commonly provided with a large dining-room, an ample bath-room, and a large dressing-room surrounded by mirrors and drawers to hold the mysteries of the toilette. In one school, however, the food arrangements were somewhat different, the director having satisfied himself that large messes were wasteful; consequently he had his dormitory built for parties of six or eight, with a small kitchen to each. The girls did their own marketing and cooking. Elsewhere such a practice was objected to on the ground of waste of time and material. In some schools the girls sweep out the rooms daily, just as boys do, and not the class-rooms only, but also the museums and exercise-room; in others the boarders are expected to keep their own rooms clean, but the general menial work is done by servants. In the way of discipline there is little to be done; girls seldom give trouble, and if they are unsatisfactory are requested to leave the school. Other punishments are rare, and even difficult to enforce without running some risk of a disturbance.

418. The conditions of admission are the same as in the middle schools, *i.e.*, candidates must be over 12, and have completed at least two years of the higher primary course. But

many schools have more applicants than they can accommodate, and are obliged to make a selection by examination ; thus, in 1902, there were 11,000 candidates, of whom 66 per cent. were enrolled. As in the middle schools, a considerable number fall by the way, the year named having seen 2,848 leave before graduation ; 1,889 of these went for private reasons, 366 changed their department of study, 440 were sick, 58 died, and 153 were struck off, probably for unexplained absence.

Courses of
study,

419. The regular course extends over four years, but may be either three or five ; the shorter course, however, is excluded from any privileges which may attach to graduates, of these schools. In addition there may be a special course of " manual arts " of 2-4 years ; a supplementary course of not more than 2 years, in revision of the main course ; and a post-graduate course of 2-3 years. Of the 80 schools only one has a three years' course ; four have one of five years. Supplementary courses are provided by 36, special courses by 43, and post-graduate courses by 2.

Subjects of
study,

420. The curriculum includes morals, Japanese, foreign languages (English or French), history, geography, mathematics, science, drawing, household management, sewing, music, and gymnastics. Music may be omitted by those who find it too difficult, and pedagogics and " manual arts " may be added. For most subjects the standard is rather lower than that of boys' middle schools. The history includes Japanese, Chinese, and general foreign history ; the mathematics consists of arithmetic, algebra, and geometry ; under science they study botany, zoology, mineralogy, physics, and chemistry. Cooking classes are held, " foreign style " being sometimes taught as well as Japanese cookery, for many respectable families now partake of foreign dishes, or what pass for such. In the English " conversation " classes girls are commonly shy and unwilling to speak ; but narratives are read to them, and then re-told by them ; or they are set to read up a given subject and then question each other thereon ; and by such devices they learn to talk a little

more freely. Manual arts appear to mean knitting, embroidery, etc. Those who take a fifth year, or post-graduate course, are probably aiming to become teachers, and so pedagogics is included amongst their subjects. A variety of games and calisthenic exercises are practised, as well as dancing, walking on a swinging log, swinging, and tennis. For the tennis the school commonly pays, but many girls have their own racquets; the courts are rough, and three or four girls may be seen playing on each side, or a whole row on one side to return balls served by an instructor on the other. The ordinary dress of girls was found not very suitable for these exercises, the long loose sleeves impeding the use of the arms, and the *kimono* being ill-adapted for running about in. Most school-girls now wear a kind of skirt, usually claret-coloured, drawn over the *kimono*, and if tight sleeves are not worn, the others are tied up. In Tokyo the wearing of boots or shoes is now widely prevalent, in place of the native clogs or sandals.

In addition to the subjects named, a good deal of time is devoted to Japanese etiquette, in order to counteract the roughening effect of foreign systems of education. Girls are taught how to serve tea, or the apparatus connected with smoking, how to arrange flowers, how to entertain a guest, how to behave at a marriage reception, and so on; the majority of the class kneeling in the Japanese manner along the side of the matted room, whilst those under training walk up to the teacher with the precise number of steps, the precise attitude of the fingers, and all the other *minutiae* prescribed by custom. The precision of this training is held to impart politeness, delicacy, and self-control.

421. Graduates of a girls' higher school with a suitable Graduation, course are entitled to certificates as primary school teachers without examination. As in the boys' schools, promotion and graduation are left entirely to the teachers, and girls are dealt with even more liberally than boys, on the plea that they are weaker vessels, or that female education must not be discouraged; entire classes of 70 or 80 are passed, and that one

should have failed this year, or been sick last year, is regarded as a misfortune. Some information as to the graduates is afforded by the Minister's report. It appears that out of 1,865 who graduated in 1901, 369 entered further courses in their own school, 17 entered the higher normal school, 233 joined other schools, 203 became teachers, 593 devoted themselves to practical pursuits or domestic affairs, 33 had married, 7 were dead, and of 410 no information had been received.

Teachers. 422. The rules relating to the staff are much the same as for middle schools, except that in the first year classes all subjects may be taken by the same teacher, who need have only primary school qualifications. Female teachers are obtained from the higher normal school, from the prefectural normal schools, or from the graduates of girls' higher schools; male teachers, from the same sources as for middle schools. Of 1,173 teachers in 1902, 36 per cent. were men; of the 753 women only 3 were foreigners. Teachers are supposed to have a licence from the Educational Department, but about 42 per cent. are said to be without this qualification.* The official account throws no light on the salaries paid to female teachers, but as the teachers in middle schools begin at about 30 shillings a month, it is probable that female teachers in girls' schools begin at 26 or thereabouts. The director of a girls' school is always a man, partly because women are considered unequal to administration, and partly because they are too jealous of one another to submit to a woman's authority.

Finance. 423. Nothing shows better the immense development of public secondary education for girls in ten years than a glance at its financial aspect. The income of these schools, most of which is derived from fees, amounted in 1892 to £1,215; by 1902 it had increased to over £20,000, or more than sixteen-fold. The expenditure, on the other hand, which was £1,800 in the former year, amounted in the latter one to nearly £150,000

* *Japan by the Japanese*, p. 232.

or eighty-two times as much. The principal heads of expenditure bore the following proportions :—Salaries 28 per cent., travelling expenses 1, pupils' expenses 0·5, rent 0·3, furniture, books and apparatus 7·7, articles of consumption 1·7, buildings 57·5, repairs 1·4, miscellaneous 1·8. About 13 per cent. of this expenditure was met out of income, and the rest out of local taxes. The income amounted to £20,000, of which £17,000 came from tuition fees, and over £2,000 from gifts, the sum derived from school stock property being *nil*. The average expenditure of a public school was £2,070, or between £7 and £8 per pupil. Where enquiry was made in individual cases, results like this were obtained; a school with 360 pupils and 27 teachers cost £1,500 *per annum*; another with 500 girls cost £1,200; another with 520 girls and 25 teachers cost £1,600; a private school with 200 girls cost £600. The tuition fees in the schools visited varied from 20 pence to 4 shillings a month, but from the statistics the general average would be 18 shillings for the year. A few may be exempted from fees, for good work or other reasons. As in boys' schools, there are no scholarships.

424. A private school under Japanese management was visited, chiefly interesting because of the evident enthusiasm of its head, an elderly gentleman whose ambition it is to pass a thousand graduates out of his school, and improve local society to that extent, by the time he is sixty. Living in one of the largest cities of Japan, with a population of 200,000, many of them enriched by foreign intercourse, he was indignant with his fellow-citizens for their apathy towards education, and especially that of females. Many of them, he said, having had no education themselves, but having acquired wealth through the opening of the country, now professed to despise education; but as the older generation passes away this attitude is likely to change. Meanwhile the prefecture has recently built a girls' school at a cost of £6,600, but outside the town at a distance inconveniently great for some; hence about 200 attended this private school, the buildings of which, though clean and neat, were very poor; but the founder hoped to build a new school before long,

and so attract larger numbers. At present the school costs £600, of which half is met out of fees, a quarter is contributed by the city, and the rest comes out of the founder's pocket. The ordinary fee is 3 shillings a month. The girls are divided into five classes, corresponding to five years, and there are 12 regular teachers, 7 of whom are women. Before one can be engaged, the name and qualifications must be submitted to the educational authorities; and the school is inspected regularly.

Japan Women's University.

History.

425. Instruction of a more advanced character is given in some of the mission schools, but the leading institution of this kind is the Japan Women's University, opened, in 1900. Mr. Naruse, the founder, spent three years in the study of female education in America, and two more in Japan itself, after which, in 1895, he made his scheme public. His object was to secure at least £30,000 for initial expenses and endowment, and he met with much support from prominent men, including Count Okuma, who felt that it was both logical and right that women should receive equal education with men, should they so desire. The number of those who think otherwise is diminishing, but conservatives may be met with in the schools as much as elsewhere, who depreciate the work of the Women's University, and declare that girls only crowd to it at present out of a fashion or out of curiosity. By 1899 enough money had been collected to justify a start; an architect gave his services gratuitously, a plot of land had also been given, and by April 1900 the new university was ready to begin work, with lecture-rooms, laboratory, three residences for professors, and two dormitories. From the beginning the applications for admission were beyond all possible accommodation, and work was started with 300 students in the university departments, and with 500 more in the attached girls' school. The total is now 1,150, and the institution is able to support itself out of the fees and the donation fund. The education given should be, in Mr. Naruse's opinion,* on Japanese and not

* *Japan by the Japanese*, p. 607.

purely foreign lines; at the same time girls require not only accomplishments, but also intellectual discipline, for they are members of society and citizens, and as such their powers of observation and judgment should be cultivated. On the other hand, school life must not disqualify them for home life; hence the dormitory is split up into quite a number of "homes," each containing not more than 25 girls under a matron. Here they cook and wash for themselves, set tables, decorate rooms, etc., as they would at home. Those who desire to learn foreign ways may be admitted to a special dormitory under a foreign professor. Altogether 600 are accommodated in the dormitories, a fee of 2 shillings, with a boarding charge of 12, being charged each month. The annual tuition fee is 55 shillings, payable in three instalments, in addition to which 11 shillings are taken for "school expenses," and music students pay for the use of harmonium or piano. The best may be made honour students, and excused the fee.

426. The staff of the university includes a president, a dean, **Staff.** a council of six under Count Okuma, and two bank-presidents as treasurers. The professors number 39, of whom 5 are ladies. The subjects provided for are as follows:—Japanese literature (9), Chinese literature (2), Oriental history, Japanese history (2), physiology, Japanese etiquette, European fine arts, constitution and civil code, natural history, drawing and painting (2), child-study, English (6), ethics (3), education, applied physics and chemistry, economics, history (2), philosophy (2), psychology (2), pedagogy (2), horticulture, Japanese art, tea ceremony, piano, hygiene, physical training. In addition there are instructors in the violin (2), in Japanese instruments, tea ceremony, flower arrangement, foreign cooking (2), Japanese cooking, and fencing.

427. • The university has attached to it a higher girls' school **Preparatory** with a five years' course, and 360 pupils, to which it is proposed **courses.** to add a primary school and a kindergarten. Then there are two preparatory courses, one a general course of one year, the other an English course of two years. Candidates for admission

must be over 16 and have completed at least 4 years of a girls' higher school course, or its equivalent. The general course includes the following subjects :—Practical ethics 1 hour a week, Japanese 10, English (optional) 5, history (Japanese and foreign) 4, physics and chemistry 2, sewing 3, physical exercise 3. In the English course one hour a week is devoted to ethics, 24 or less to English, and 3 to physical training. At present there are 100 students in the general course and 60 in the other.

University
courses.

428. The university proper has three departments, domestic science, Japanese literature, and English literature, to which it is hoped in time to add pedagogics, art, music, science, and calisthenics. The three departments are attended by 300, 200, and 77 students respectively, from which it will be seen that the Japanese element far outweighs that which may be called foreign. Candidates for admission must be over 17 and have completed the preparatory course, or a five years' course at a girls' school, and must provide a responsible householder of Tokyo, of over 30, as a surety. Each course covers 3 years, the subjects being divided into necessary and optional.

Domestic Science.—Necessary. First year : ethics, psychology, physiology, applied physics and chemistry, applied natural history, household economy, etiquette etc. Second year : ethics, education and nursing of children, hygiene of women and homes, political and domestic economy, history of Japanese fine arts, household economy, etiquette, etc. Third year : ethics, applied physics and chemistry, history of European fine arts, family education, child study and study of fairy tales, nursing and public hygiene, imperial constitution, civil code, etc., household economy and etiquette. The optional subjects are Japanese literature, Chinese classics, English, history, philosophy and history of philosophy, music, drawing and painting, methods of teaching.

Japanese Literature.—Necessary. First year : ethics, Japanese literature, Chinese classics and history, introduction to philosophy and history of philosophy, Japanese history. Second year : ethics, education and nursing of children, Japanese, Chinese, history of Japanese fine arts, history of philosophy, Japanese history. Third year : ethics, family education, child study and study of fairy tales, Japanese, Chinese, history of European fine arts, Japanese history. The optional courses are physiology and hygiene, applied sciences, domestic science and art, English, music, drawing and painting, economics, constitution and civil code, methods of teaching.

English Literature.—Necessary. First year : ethics, psychology, English, Japanese, philosophy, Western history. Second year : ethics, English, Japanese, philosophy,

Western history, education and nursing of children. Third year : ethics, English, Japanese, Western history, family education, child study and fairy tales, history of European fine arts. The optional subjects are physiology and hygiene, Chinese classics, applied sciences, domestic science and art, music, drawing and painting, economics, constitution and civil code, methods of teaching.

For the teaching of English there are provided four Japanese professors (three of whom have American qualifications) and two foreign ladies. Complaints are made that the classes are extremely unequal, some pupils appearing incapable of understanding a foreigner ; that girls do not attempt to improve their knowledge of English by reading English books or magazines ; and that pupils who are quite unfit for promotion, or who have even been absent for months, are promoted for fear that they should become discouraged and leave.

Students are promoted by the faculty on the results of their daily work, whilst graduation is determined by the same body on the daily work and graduation essays. The first batch of graduates was turned out in 1904 ; 55 came from the domestic science department, 59 from the Japanese, and only 6 from the English. The last continued their studies further, with the view of becoming teachers. In any regular subject a course of post-graduate study may be pursued under the guidance of the professors concerned for not more than 3 years, or post-graduate students may attend such regular lectures as may suit them.

Industrial Education for Girls.

429. Two large industrial schools for girls were visited, one ^{School at} at Tokyo and the other at Kagoshima, which are, I believe, the most complete of the kind in Japan. The Girls' Industrial School, Incorporated, of Tokyo was founded in 1886, and removed in 1892 to its present site, which together with the buildings was presented to it by the Imperial Household. Both the Emperor and the Empress have shown an interest in its welfare ; and the school won a silver medal at Paris in 1888, a medal at Chicago in 1893, and a grand prize and medal at Paris again in 1900, besides awards at Japanese exhibitions. It was originally intended to train girls to earn their living, but in practice

most of the pupils are drawn from a better class ; some after marriage settle down to domestic life, others become teachers on £2 a month and upwards. The total number of girls in attendance is over 600, of whom 60 reside in the dormitory. One was usually told in Tokyo that schools did not require dormitories, but in this case there are far more applicants than can be accommodated, even Tokyo parents often preferring that their daughters should reside at the school. The dormitory charge is 13 shillings a month, the tuition fee from 2s. 8d. to 3s. 8d. The fees and sales suffice to cover the annual expenditure, which comes to about £2,000. The staff comprises a director and assistant director, 3 managers, 3 dormitory superintendents, and 46 teachers ; the teachers are all women, the lowest paid drawing from 16 to 20 shillings a month. For those pupils who come from the primary school there is a general course, including morals, Japanese, arithmetic, household management, and science ; but girls who join from a higher school are excused all of these except morals. The technical courses are sewing, knitting, braiding, embroidery, artificial flower making, drawing and painting, and cookery. Over 400 were studying two of these subjects, less than 200 only one, and 70 were pursuing the cooking course. Two Siamese girls in Japanese dress were making flowers, two more were practising embroidery. A large number of girls were busy making underwear for the army ; the proceeds would probably be devoted to the war funds, to which the girls and teachers had already contributed £1,000.

School at
Kagoshima.

430. The corresponding school at Kagoshima in the extreme south of Japan is maintained by the city, and is now 11 years old. It also draws its pupils, who now number 570, from highly respectable classes. They may be admitted after the second year of the higher primary course, but most come after the fourth year, taking a course here of two or three years according to the subject. There is also one class with a four years' course for graduates of the ordinary primary schools only. From 180 to 200 are admitted yearly out of 300 applicants ; the tuition fee is from 7½ pence to a shilling a month, according to age,

and the annual cost of the school £900. The work of the younger girls has to be thrown away, but the elder ones turn out good work, which is sold to the extent of £120 a year. The present buildings are poor wooden sheds, but airy, with a large upper room, capable of holding 300, for lessons in morals or sewing. The subjects of study are morals, Japanese, arithmetic, science (elementary chemistry and botany), history and geography, drawing, household management and cooking, weaving, dyeing, sewing, embroidery, and flower-making. There are 26 teachers, 3 of them being men, for weaving, dyeing, and drawing respectively; several of the others come from the school at Tokyo just described. This school has turned out nearly a thousand graduates, over 300 of whom are teaching in primary schools, being applied for from the neighbouring prefectures as well. Of the rest most are married, and do not require to work for themselves. Both of these schools, therefore, now attract a class somewhat higher than that for which they were intended, and the same is seen in many of the industrial schools for boys.

Chapter XIV.—EDUCATION OF SPECIAL CLASSES.

431. The special classes contemplated in this chapter are Divisions of the subject. (a) the aristocracy, (b) aborigines, (c) outcasts, (d) defectives, and (e) those who have been convicted. An apology is perhaps due to the first-named for the company in which they here find themselves.

A.—The Aristocracy.

432. In former times the sons of the nobility were frequently sent to the Imperial Court at Kyoto to acquire good breeding and a knowledge of courtly ceremonial. With the new era the reformers who were laying out schemes of education for all classes did not overlook the aristocracy, and as early as 1871 the Emperor expressed a desire to see a school founded for the sons and daughters of his nobles. By 1876 the scheme had taken shape, 150 of the peers subscribing the necessary funds, to which the Emperor added liberal donations and a large plot of land. Mr. Verbeck seems to have had something The Peers' School.

to do with the organisation of the school, which opened in 1877 with 130 pupils. A little later it was decided to admit sons of scholars and other commoners, in order to provide some competition for the young nobles and an incentive to work; and 70 entered the school in this way. By the end of the year there were 230 pupils, the school being divided into three departments—the boys' primary, the girls' primary, and the middle school. In each case the course was intended to cover 8 years. There was also an "irregular" course, in Japanese, Chinese, English, and mathematics, for those over 17 or in weak health. In 1878 a dormitory was completed for some of the boys, and it was decided to levy a fee from the children of commoners attending the school, the young nobles paying nothing because of the funds contributed by their parents. In 1879 three courses of six years apiece were constituted: the common department, the practical department, and the Japanese, Chinese, and English literature department. Arrangements were also made for lessons in military drill, fencing, and riding. In 1882 the number of departments was increased to seven: for boys, a lower and an upper primary of 4 years each, and a lower and an upper middle of 3 years each; for girls, a lower, middle, and upper primary of 3 years each. A year later the school, hitherto a kind of private establishment, was transferred to the care of the Imperial Household. In 1886 all the buildings were destroyed by fire. Till then the pupils had been chiefly boys, only the most progressive nobles having had the courage to send their daughters to the school; but in this year a separate school was opened for princesses and peeresses under the direct patronage of the Empress, and 140 girls joined it from the beginning. The boys' school was now reorganised into four departments—preparatory (6 years), middle (5 years), higher (2 years), and university (3 years). The new buildings were completed in 1890, but in 1894 were seriously damaged by an earthquake, and the dormitory had to be converted into classrooms. At the present time the intention is to move the school to a new site as soon as circumstances permit. It is occasionally

visited by the Emperor, and was attended by the Crown Prince for a short time ; whilst the Crown Princess received her education at the corresponding school for girls.

• 433. From this account it will be seen that the Peers' school has undergone a good many changes ; it has had a number of directors, and the present condition of the school is considered to be very unsatisfactory. It has now been placed in the hands of Baron Kikuchi, a former Minister of Education, for thorough reorganisation. The present buildings are poor, and the want of a dormitory is much felt ; but it is hoped that on the new site it will be possible to accommodate all but the primary department in the dormitory. Better supervision can then be exercised ; at present the young men are exposed to various temptations, even between their homes and the school, and though steps are taken to control them, much depends on the parents, some of whom will do nothing, leaving their sons' education, like everything else, to be managed by their retainers. Lack of moral stamina, in fact, seems to be the chief failing of the hereditary nobility ; accustomed for generations to have everything done for them, and without incentive to work for themselves, they are wanting in will-power. The feudal system fell to pieces with unprecedented rapidity, because it was already rotten at the core ; the daimyos, with few exceptions, were nonentities, their authority being wielded by their retainers, and the leading creators of modern Japan were simple *samurai* at the outset. At games and physical exercises the young peers are very successful ; they win in open contests with other schools, and play a dashing game at tennis. But intellectually many are inferior to the average boy, and many are disposed to be idle. There is no obligation on the nobles to send their sons to this school, and some try the ordinary schools first ; then, if the boys fail from dullness or idleness, they are sent to the Peers' school, where they are not welcome, being generally too big for their standard, and apt to worry the smaller boys with whom they are placed. Some parents employ ordinary students

The young nobles.

as private tutors for their sons, but these are said to do little but cram them so as to make a decent show for the time being. It was hoped that the young peers would take to the army and navy, but comparatively few succeed in entering them, as the examinations are stiff, and they enjoy no privilege.

Present
organization.

434. At present there are four departments in the school—primary, middle, higher, and university—but I understood the director to say that he would like to substitute an enlarged college course for the last two, leaving those who liked to proceed to the Imperial University. The middle course lasts for 6 years, instead of 5 as in the public schools; but these boys are in no hurry, and some of them are backward. The classes average 37 in strength, and the total number of boys is about 650, but 200 of these are commoners; the policy, however, of introducing these, even as a stimulus, does not commend itself to all. The boys wear a plain uniform like that of the ordinary student, and there are no fees. A dozen horses are maintained for their riding lessons, and a long row of bicycles may be seen in a shed, this being the only school visited where the bicycle was much in evidence. The annual cost of the school is about £10,000, defrayed out of its endowment fund, and a contribution from the Imperial Household.

The Peer-
esses' school.

435. The Peeresses' School was established independently in 1886 and now occupies an imposing block of buildings in its own grounds; it is controlled by the Imperial Household, is visited frequently by the Empress, and is attended by five or six hundred girls; one-third of them, however, are commoners. They are reported to be fairly intelligent and industrious; whilst their autumn sports, carried out in the presence of the Empress, several princesses, and more than 2,000 other spectators, numbered 32 events, including a tennis match, obstacle race, dancing, etc., and lasted from 9 o'clock till 4.

B.—Aborigines.

Aborigines
of Formosa.

436. There are two groups of aborigines with whom the Japanese have to deal—one in Formosa, the other in Hokkaido. Formosa contains, besides Japanese officials and settlers, a

number of Chinese, a number of half-civilised natives of mixed blood, and about a hundred thousand of head-hunting savages, whom the Chinese Government left alone as much as possible. The Japanese have begun to take them in hand, but the occupation of the island is too recent for much to have been accomplished as yet. Some tribes are said to have signified their willingness to keep the peace, provided that the Japanese would undertake to send them a suitable supply of Chinese heads from time to time ; but they are more likely to get "branches of the Japanese Language School." "They were found comparatively tame," says the official account, "and indeed some of them living near our local offices come frequently among us, and are grown quite familiar with us. In such places branch departments of the Japanese Language School are opened, and some easy lessons are given to them."

437. Better known are the Ainu (literally "men") of Hokkaido, or Yezo, the scanty remnants of a race which occupied the Japanese islands before the appearance of the present Japanese. The latter drove the Ainu before them, but many names still scattered about the country are of Ainu origin, or else recall some of the stages of the long conflict, which was only consummated in the 18th century. Since then the Ainu have been confined to the northern island, where their Japanese masters were apt to treat them cruelly enough during the feudal period. It was penal to teach them writing or any other civilised art, but that of drinking, to which they took with fatal facility. Until quite lately, except for the summer tours of a few scientific observers, the Japanese did nothing for them, and even hampered the earlier efforts of the one man who has devoted his life to them, the Rev. J. Batchelor, of the Church Missionary Society. Observing that Ainu boys felt their inferiority to the Japanese, and had no energy to compete with them, Mr. Batchelor urged the creation of separate schools for the Ainu, as also that they should be specially taught agriculture and the breeding of horses or cattle ; but it is only recently that anything has been done to carry out these suggestions. Hitherto the children have been

left very much to themselves, to come to school or not, as they pleased. Mr. Batchelor himself has maintained several Ainu schools in various parts, which he is now endeavouring to transfer to the Government, in order to devote his efforts to bettering the position of the girls. These are often married by the Japanese settlers, and more might find homes in this way if they were brought up better, and induced to refrain from tattooing their faces. The Ainu are not, I think, as shy and inaccessible as some of the aboriginal tribes of India, and many villages can now be reached from the railway; but the north of the island and a large portion of the coasts can only be visited on horse-back or by fishing boats. There are now but 17,000* of these people left, and no doubt the race will become extinct before long. Their language will perhaps precede them, for the children who go to school are taught only Japanese. They live mainly by hunting and fishing, with a little agriculture of a careless kind. The girls begin to tattoo their lips when they are about 12, and by the time they are full-grown possess an enormous pair of blue moustaches, which lend them an extraordinary appearance, and cause some Japanese bridegrooms to resort to the doctor in search of medicine that will remove the ornament.

Education of
the Ainu,

438. As the Ainu children do not work well by the side of Japanese, the present policy is to open special schools for them, either in separate buildings or in separate class-rooms, whenever there are 30 children available. Ten such schools have already been established or taken over from individuals, and are maintained by the National Treasury, not by the local authorities. They are of the ordinary primary standard, but it is found that an Ainu takes five years where a Japanese takes four; more time, also, is devoted to agriculture. At the end of this course most return home to help their parents; a few, however, continue at the Japanese higher primary school. But the Ainu mind soon comes to an end, as it were; it is unfitted for higher work, and even the best of them eventually give way to drink.

• Two are now at the normal school, but are unable to keep up

with the rest ; two others graduated from it previously, but, in spite of every chance, they shirked work and took to drink ; one of them got into prison, and both are now dead. The school children are apt to be irregular in attendance, being easily kept away by rain or fishing ; but the majority of them come to school, at any rate for a time. This is largely a question of the teacher's personal efforts and influence, and some of them are diligent in going round the village and beating up recruits. But the effects of the schooling are said to be visible ; the boys, when they go back to work, work better, and are entrusted with the duty of dividing the catch of fish among the partners, the ordinary Ainu being almost devoid of either the ideas or the language necessary for arithmetical operations.

439. Two of these Ainu schools were visited. One occupied a new building in a clearing in the jungle, at a little distance from a mixed Ainu and Japanese village ; the building cost about £70, and afforded a single class-room, together with quarters for the Japanese teacher. The cost of working for the year was about £55. The village reckoned 36 Ainu boys and 28 girls, of whom 31 boys and 18 girls attended the school. Most of them had already dispersed, but about a dozen were sweeping out the room, which looked clean and neat. The children were cheerful and on the best of terms with their teacher ; they said that they liked coming to school. An adjoining patch of ground had been cleared and planted with vegetables, which were tended by the children, but the results were poor, the soil consisting chiefly of volcanic ashes.

Examples of
schools.

The other school visited was only accessible by a fishing boat, though in a more civilised neighbourhood. It was attended by 32 Japanese children and 71 Ainu, there being a separate room and a separate teacher for each section. The Ainu part, supported by the National Treasury, cost £65 a year ; the Japanese part only £12, paid by the village. This school had grown out of a private school maintained for 16 years by the man who now taught the Ainu. These were supposed to attend for five years, in the last of which they did some work in the

vegetable garden ; they might also continue for two supplementary years, doing only 3 hours of class work and spending the rest of the day in agriculture. The ordinary hours were from 8-30 or 9 till 2, with 20 minutes' recreation in each hour ; but at the time of my visit there were no visible signs of teaching, the class-rooms looked dirty, and the teacher of the Japanese section was not present. The garden also looked unkempt ; but the sale of vegetables and flowers is sufficient to enable the school to buy seed, and also picture-books to give as prizes. The Ainu are careless cultivators, and pay little attention to advice ; tidiness, at least, they would hardly learn from either of the gardens seen by me. Irregular and backward at school, reckless and drunken in after-life, they seem bound to disappear as their island fills up with the surplus of the overflowing population of Japan.

C.—Outcasts.

Outcast
classes.

440. The pariahs and other outcasts of India find their counterpart in certain sections of the population of Japan, formerly known by various names, such as *eta*, *hinin*, etc. The *eta* in feudal times assisted the police with the torture, execution, and burial of criminals ; they slaughtered and skinned animals, and followed various other occupations. But the majority of them earned their living by the preparation of leather and furs. They were thus intimately associated with the taking of life, and it seems natural to attribute the peculiar horror with which they were regarded to Buddhist feeling on the subject of animal life. Some, however, have thought that even this would hardly account for the exceptional fierceness of that horror, which must have had its source in "some ancient affront to the people's intense sentiment of patriotism, some long-forgotten hurt to the Empire, of which the only remaining trace is this undying hatred, now become a national instinct." * Others, again, see in the *eta* the descendants of Korean prisoners brought to Japan in the 16th century. The fact is that the

* Knapp, *Feudal and Modern Japan*, i. 175.

origin of the class, the name, and the prejudice, is totally unknown to the Japanese of the present day. The name *hinin*, on the other hand, literally means "not men," and was applied to the lowest class of beggars and outlaws, who built huts for themselves on waste ground or by the roadside, and lived by minstrelsy, prostitution, or mere begging. The killing of such persons was not accounted murder, they bathed in the pool set apart for horses, and were counted with the numerals employed for animals. The *eta*, however, lived in settlements of their own, usually on the outskirts of towns and villages, and their dwellings were shunned by the rest of the population as centres of moral and physical pollution; even the dogs, it is said, would not cross the invisible line of separation.* They had their own laws and headmen, and might not eat, drink, or cook along with other people, or enter any ordinary house unless that of a dealer in shoes. The spot on which an *eta* had stood was sprinkled with salt in order to purify it; and they were not included in any census, unless among the cattle. In fact their existence was as far as possible ignored.

441. The Jesuit missionaries of the 16th century, whilst trying hard to capture the chief men of Japan, did not neglect this down-trodden class; indeed, the attention which they devoted to the *eta* in some parts was such as to frighten respectable citizens away from the Christian fold. But, with this exception, nothing was ever done to improve the position of the outcasts until the abolition of feudalism in 1871, when the legal distinction between them and other commoners was removed. At that time the total number of outcasts was returned as 980,000, of whom 280,000 were *eta* proper.† And, as in India euphemistic names have been devised for the outcasts of Madras, so in Japan these classes have been known since 1871 as *shin-heimin*, or "new commoners." The legal change, however, could not destroy the effect of centuries of prejudice; the *eta* were still shunned, and their children could

Their
education.

* Hearn, *Japan*, p. 273.

† *Things Japanese*.

hardly present themselves at the new public schools without giving rise to disturbances. In some cases special schools or special classes were opened for them; elsewhere time was left to work a cure. In one place the governor of a province entered himself as a pupil at a primary school; he sat with the outcast children in class, he slept in an *eta* house; and when the people saw that he could do this without any feeling of degradation, they gave in, and the school prospered.* In 1891 Mr. Lafcadio Hearn paid a visit to the settlement of *eta* and other outcasts outside the old-fashioned town of Matsue, on the west coast of Japan. "I had expected," he says, "to see a good deal of ugliness and filth. On the contrary, I saw a multitude of neat dwellings with pretty gardens about them, and pictures on the walls of the rooms. There were many trees, a large public bath-house, and a public laundry."† There is indeed no visible difference between the persons and dwellings of the *shin-heimin* and those of ordinary Japanese of a similar position in life. Many of them are prosperous, and because of the very stigma upon their class they are more scrupulously clean than ordinary folk. The majority, no doubt, are poor, but their houses are not shabbier than those of many poor Japanese who live inside the towns. Mr. Hearn refers to differences of manners and language created by centuries of isolation without any education, but these differences are disappearing, now that the children receive just the same education as others. At the time of Mr. Hearn's visit the outcasts were not allowed to live inside Matsue or attend the school; they could not become servants of any sort, or even jinrikisha coolies, or common labourers, unless by going to some distant place where they were unknown. After his first account was written a special school was established for them, "through the benevolence of Matsue citizens superior to prejudice." But at the time of my own visit, 13 years later, things had changed a good deal. Though the neighbours do not like it much, a few of these

* Knapp, *Feudal and Modern Japan*, i. 181.

† *Kokoro*, p. 331.

people now live inside the town; and the special school (or class) has long since disappeared, the children attending school like any others. In no part of Japan, indeed, could I hear of any school being maintained specially for this class, though I did come across a class of a dozen boys and girls who were being taught apart; but the reason was said to be that their parents had been slack about sending them to school at the proper time, and so the children could not be taught along with the rest. This, perhaps, was not the whole truth, but it was the only case of the kind encountered. These children seemed lively and keen, and no dirtier than the ordinary village primary class.

442. One can understand that respectable parents do not care for their children to associate at school with those of rag-pickers; still, though children of all classes meet at school, they need not necessarily mix, and in the country, at any rate, the *eta* children are known, and are for the most part left to themselves. But no obstacle is put in their way, and in large places like Tokyo they may not even be known, unless to the police. Moreover, their parents' occupations need not be of a repulsive kind; though some collect rags and waste paper, and others work in leather, many live by cultivation, or by working in straw and bamboo, or by sinking wells, or other occupations to which exception can hardly be taken. But though the prejudice against them is weaker, it is hardly likely to disappear so long as they are expected to live in separate settlements; and as long as there is a prejudice against them, the poorer and more ignorant parents are likely to be shy about sending their children to school. This can only be left to time to settle. Already those comparatively well-to-do find little difficulty, and one of the cleverest boys in a certain middle school was said to be of *eta* origin. It need hardly be added that no Japanese teacher makes a fuss about teaching *shin-heimin*. It would appear, then, that the education of the depressed classes is following the same lines as in India, only the movement is more

Weakening
of prejudice.

rapid. Various causes have contributed to this. To begin with, the prejudice was largely irrational, its origin unknown. So far as it was connected with Buddhist feeling, the decline of Buddhism, the spread of the meat-eating habit, and the general absence of religious fanaticism in Japan would help to weaken it. Then, all legal disabilities have been removed, and an *eta* is as free as any one else to change his residence and his occupation; he can remove to some large centre where no one knows his origin. Teachers make no difference between *eta* children and the rest, and the common schooling tends to remove anything which differentiated the former. As the prejudice weakens still further, no doubt the separate settlements will disappear, and the *shin-heimin* will become completely merged in the general population.

D.—Defectives.

School at
Kyoto.

443. Even before the present era some attempts were made to teach acupuncture and massage to the blind to enable them to earn a living, but the first regular institute for the blind and dumb was founded at Kyoto in 1878. At first a private institution, it was then taken over by the city, which now contributes £230 towards the expenses; the prefecture gives £25, and the rest of the annual expenditure of £700 is derived from a school fund of £4,500, from donations, and from a monthly fee of one shilling levied on pupils coming from outside the municipal jurisdiction. Those who reside in the dormitory are charged 12 shillings a month. This school has 10 ordinary teachers and 10 technical, with 69 blind pupils and 157 dumb. The technical subjects of study are acupuncture, massage, and playing on the *koto* (a stringed instrument) for the blind; and drawing and sewing for the dumb. But the majority of the pupils (156) are in the ordinary course, in which the ordinary primary text-books are employed, along with others compiled by the school, the course of study lasting five years.

School at
Tokyo.

444. The Government school at Tokyo was opened two years later (1880), having originated in a movement started by four Japanese and an American missionary in 1875. The

Emperor gave £300 towards the project, and a two-storied brick building was erected at a cost of only £900, labour and materials having been contributed in many cases. But it was some time before any blind or dumb children could be persuaded to take advantage of the school, the first two recruits being found by a Vice-Minister of State, who paid their daily jinrikisha fare. Two years later acupuncture, massage, playing on the *koto*, and sewing were introduced, drawing and carving being added later. In 1885, when there were 36 pupils, the institute was transferred to the Department of Education, which removed it to a better site (1891), and considerably enlarged it so that it might serve as a model. The new site cost £3,400, the buildings nearly £6,000, and the equipment £1,200; the site has an area of 250,000 square feet, the school occupying 22,000 and the dormitory another 19,000. There are separate quarters provided for males and females, 69 of the former and 40 of the latter being resident, at a monthly rate of 10-12 shillings. The yearly expenditure of this school is now £1,500, towards which Government contributes £1,100. Tuition fees have been abolished since 1900, but there is a reserve fund of £8,000, and efforts are being made to raise this to a sum sufficient to place the school on an independent footing. The teachers number 15, whilst there are 73 blind pupils and 196 deaf-mutes. The latter include 117 males and 79 females, but of the blind only 11 are females. The number of applicants for admission is so great that only 57 per cent. can be received, but a quarter of these leave before completing the course. Of courses, there are two for each section, ordinary and industrial, but pupils are at liberty to take one or more subjects according to their parents' wishes. Candidates must be between 10 and 16 and provided with two sureties as in other schools; nearly 90 per cent. take the ordinary course. The massage course lasts for 3 years, the others for 5, with from 3 to 6 hours daily, according to circumstances; an examination is held each March, and certificates of graduation awarded on completion of the full course.

Courses for
the blind.

445. For the blind the ordinary course includes reading, writing, conversation, arithmetic, and physical exercises. Here the nature of the Japanese language gave rise to great difficulties; Chinese letters, Japanese *kana*, and Roman letters were all tried, together with various methods of printing in relief. Finally, a teacher in the school succeeded in adapting Braille's system of writing by points to the *kana* syllabary, and this method is now followed for writing and reading. The same teacher also devised embossed maps of Japan, and of the two hemispheres, to which an embossed globe has been added by a friend. For arithmetic the common abacus is used, but others are being experimented with. The industrial course consists of acupuncture, massage, and music. The last is now limited to the *koto*, an instrument by which the blind can earn a good deal, whether as performers or as teachers. Both the piano and the violin have been tried, but owing to the anti-foreign reaction it seemed improbable that they would be of any use to the blind, and so they were abandoned. For a similar reason the making of European clothes, at one time taught to the dumb, was dropped. Massage is very popular with the Japanese, and is almost, though not quite, a monopoly of the blind, whose peculiar whistle may be heard every evening, as they grope their way along the streets and into the inns. For their attentions I was commonly charged from 5 pence to 7½ pence; and many of them amass considerable sums, which they increase by usury. European critics say that they are wrong in shampooing away from the heart, instead of towards it, and both methods are now taught in Tokyo. Another speciality of the blind is acupuncture, the running of needles to varying depths in the tissues, a mode of treatment borrowed from China. Those who take up this subject are taught some general principles of anatomy and physiology, and practice with their needles partly on a *papier-maché* model of the human body, and partly (it was said) on the teacher. Altogether, the blind of Japan must be accounted fortunate in having several lucrative callings open to them, whereby many of them are saved from becoming burdens

to their families. It may be added that an analysis of the causes of blindness amongst the pupils of this school shows very few attributed to small-pox. Vaccination is, of course, compulsory in Japan, and foreign residents say that the effects of small-pox have visibly diminished in the last few years.

446. For the deaf-mutes the ordinary course is based on that of the ordinary primary schools, and comprises reading, writing, composition, arithmetic, written conversation, and physical exercises. Experiments have been made in teaching articulation, as also with finger alphabets, audiphones, and other instruments, but most of these have been abandoned. The children seen by me could not talk with their fingers, except in the way of drawing the characters; for arithmetical answers they held up the necessary number of fingers. The nature of the language complicates all these problems for those who have only one sense to guide them; the same character has different sounds, and the same sound is represented by different characters, to say nothing of the differences between written, spoken, newspaper, epistolary, historical, and other styles. In the industrial course deaf-mutes are taught sewing (chiefly for females), drawing, carving and joinery. Even in the school they can earn a little by tracing drawings to order, and the like. The dumb children were bright and cheerful, keen on their lessons, and running about vigorously during the recess; they enjoyed the advantage of being taught in small classes. The school is now well-housed and well-equipped, and the staff seem to be interested in their work.

Courses for
the dumb.

447. The blind graduates have numbered 64, of whom 28 are practising acupuncture and massage privately or in hospitals, 15 are teaching, 5 are studying further subjects, 14 are dead, and 2 are unknown. Those who play the *koto* earn from £2 to £4 a month, the average being £3.3; whilst *masseurs* earn from £1 to £6, the average being £2. Of the deaf-mutes 59 have graduated, of whom 20 are studying further subjects, 9 are engaged in household business, 4 are teaching, 6 are sick or dead, 3 are unknown, and the remainder have taken up all sorts of occupations from farming and tailoring to organ manufacture and pho-

Graduates.

tography. Those who can draw earn an average of 30 shillings a month, whilst the carvers and joiners make a trifle less.

Training of
teachers,

448. In addition to the courses described, there is a training course for teachers up to the number of ten.⁶ Those admitted, should have regular licences as ordinary primary teachers, but suitable blind or dumb graduates of the Tokyo or Kyoto schools may be specially admitted. The course lasts for one year, and includes morals, education, Japanese, physiology, drawing, the use of special apparatus, singing, and physical exercises; the weekly hours are 27, the first two terms being devoted to class work, the third to practice. Each pupil is allowed 14 shillings a month towards his expenses, and is bound to serve for at least two years after graduation.

Other schools.

449. Ten years ago these were the only schools of the kind in Japan; by 1897 two private ones had been added, and now there are 17 such, with nearly 70 instructors and 560 pupils. Some are for the blind only. The only one visited was a very humble institution, founded by two blind teachers, with some help from their friends, and a very little from the town; 16 pupils were in attendance, most of whom hoped to become shampooers, and the appliances were very poor. Probably most of the private institutions are of a similar character. Some are free, others charge from six pence to a shilling a month. But the efforts made so far have only succeeded in reaching a small proportion of the total number of defective children, for it is estimated that of every 10,000 children of school age 6 are blind and 8 deaf-mute, from which it would follow that there were about 10,000 defectives in the whole school population.

E.—Reformatory Schools.

Reformatories.

450. It seemed at one time as though a section on reformatories in Japan would somewhat resemble the famous chapter on Snakes in Ireland. I was told by old residents that there were no reformatories, unless private ones for discharged prisoners, and certainly no reference is made to them either in *Education*

in *Japan* or in the chapter on Police and Prisons in *Japan by the Japanese*. On the other hand, a high educational authority informed me that besides several private ones for boys who had been in gaol, or who had no parents, or who were beyond their parents' control, almost every gaol had a public one under the Minister of Justice. According to this authority, the reformatory is inside the prison. The boys receive instruction in reading, writing, and morals, priests of various sects being allowed access to them; and sometimes a trade is taught as well. Time did not permit of my pursuing the matter further, but in any case, if the above description is correct, it would appear that India has little to learn from Japan in this matter.

Chapter XV.—TEACHERS.

451. Under this head four subjects present themselves for treatment—(a) the licensing of teachers, (b) their training, (c) their general status with reference to other callings, and (d) the position and recruitment of foreign teachers. Divisions of the subject.

A.—The Licensing of Teachers.

452. Primary teachers ought, by rule, to be provided with licenses, but owing to the shortage in teachers there are many Primary school licenses. who are not (21·5 per cent. according to a statement quoted previously), and some are preparing themselves for the licensing examination. These licenses are either general or prefectural. *General licenses* are granted by the Minister for Education to those who have served with prefectural licenses satisfactorily for 10 years; to graduates of higher normal schools who have served for 3 years; and to specially qualified graduates of other Government schools who have served for a similar period. *Prefectural licenses* are granted to the graduates of normal and certain other schools, and to those who have passed the licensing test conducted by a committee under the chairmanship of the chief inspector in each prefecture. The test is of two kinds, with or without examination. The following are qualified to appear for the test without examination:—Those licensed as instructors in normal or secondary schools; those licensed as instructors in

primary schools in any other prefecture ; specially qualified graduates of Government schools ; graduates of middle and girls' higher schools ; and persons deemed fit by the local governor with the approval of the Minister. As for the test by examination, it is held at least once a year, and includes the method of teaching as well as the various subjects of the primary curriculum ; some of these may be omitted for those who may be presumed to have the necessary attainments, or who are candidates for the lower grades only. For the highest grade the ordinary normal school examination is taken as the standard. Candidates who do well in particular subjects may be granted a certificate for those subjects only, and if they appear again within 3 years are exempted from examination in them. The examination is practical as well as written, the candidates being set to teach for an hour or two in a primary school. The examiners are normal school teachers and educational inspectors. In 1902 the local committees passed 7,467 candidates without, and 15,969 after, examination, or 23,436 in all out of 62,841 candidates (37 per cent.). In the same year general licenses were granted to 233 men and 5 women ; prefectural licenses to 20,110 men and 6,709 women. This prefectural total of 26,819 included 3,395 graduates of normal schools (about 13 per cent. of the whole, those licensed without examination being 27 per cent., and those licensed after examination 60); but the total number of such graduates who are serving as primary teachers is no longer stated in the annual reports. In 1897 there were 17,626 out of a total of 60,833 teachers, or about 28 per cent. Mr. Lewis states * that the proportion in Japan and New England is about 30 per cent., as against 100 per cent. in Germany and Switzerland.

Secondary
school
licenses.

453. Teachers in secondary or normal schools ought, by rule, to be provided with licenses from the Minister for Education, but owing to the shortage of teachers two-thirds of those in any one secondary school are for the present allowed to be unlicensed. However, so far as middle schools are concerned 56

* *Educational Conquest of the Far East*, p. 70.

per cent. of the present teachers have certificates. These licenses are granted to graduates of higher normal schools and special training institutes of the Fine Art School and Academy of Music, or to those who have passed the licensing test conducted by a committee of the Educational Department. For this test the candidates may select as many as they please from the following subjects, a fee of 6 shillings being payable for each :—Morals, pedagogics, Japanese, Chinese classics, English, French, German, history, geography, mathematics, physics, chemistry, natural history, law and economics, penmanship, drawing, household management, sewing, gymnastics, music, book-keeping, agriculture, commerce, and manual work. They may also offer a special branch of some of these subjects, history, mathematics, and natural history admitting of obvious sub-divisions. Law and economics must be coupled with either morals or pedagogics. As in the primary case, the test is of two kinds, with or without examination. For the license without examination the following are qualified :—Graduates of the Imperial Universities, and of the higher Government schools, general, professional, or technical ; graduates of secondary schools who have studied for at least 3 years in one of six approved schools, public or private ; graduates of normal or secondary schools who have obtained a diploma in a foreign college ; graduates of foreign schools of a standard equal to that of the normal and secondary schools of Japan ; and persons possessed of certificates qualifying them to teach in a school higher than the one they apply for. As for the test by examination, it is held at least once a year, and has two stages, a preliminary held in the provinces, and a final held in Tokyo ; but the former may be omitted. It bears on the method of teaching as well as on actual knowledge, the standard being adjusted according to the nature of the candidate's application. The candidate must also submit a medical certificate showing his constitution, height, weight, chest measurement ; powers of sight, of hearing, and of breathing ; condition of the nervous system, skin, and organs of speech ; present and past diseases, deformities, etc. His moral character and past life are also

enquired into. In 1902 licenses were granted to 991 persons for 1,576 subjects, 799 being men and 192 women. Of these 28 per cent. were licensed forthwith as graduates of the Government institutions mentioned above; 25 per cent. were passed after scrutiny of their qualifications; and 47 per cent. after examination. Under this last head out of 4,331 applicants less than 11 per cent. were successful; whilst under the second head, out of 284 applicants 85 per cent. were licensed.

It will be seen, then, that for either a primary or a secondary license it is necessary *either* to satisfy a prescribed test *or* to graduate from a recognised training institution; and this brings us to the next subject—the training of teachers.

B.—The Training of Teachers.

Institutions
for training
teachers.

454. Old Japan knew no trained teachers, but with the new era the Japanese soon realised that the best of systems would be ineffective without trained men to work it; and the clean sweep made of the traditional learning rendered it particularly necessary to supervise the training of the new teachers. Normal schools, and later higher normal schools, were established, and to these have been added teachers' institutes and other provisional arrangements for coping with the enormous demand; whilst the professional and technical institutions have sent out a number of qualified teachers of corresponding subjects.

Normal Schools.

History.

455. The first normal school was opened at Tokyo in 1872; in the following year one for females was added, and six schools were opened by the Government in other places. In 1875 each prefecture was ordered to establish its own, and a little later Government withdrew from the field, retaining only the two at Tokyo to serve as models, these being subsequently converted into higher normal schools. On the other hand, the Department promised £ 5,000, afterwards raised to £ 7,000, as aid to the local schools—an aid which now takes the form of paying the salaries of their directors, and amounts to about £ 6,000 annually. By 1887 forty-five schools had been established,

with nearly 4,200 male and 600 female pupils, the local expenditure being £68,000. The number of schools has now risen to 57; the pupils in 1903 numbered 12,800 males and 2,533 females, and the expenditure was £285,000. Of these 15,333 pupils, 14,172 were in the main course, 816 in simpler courses, and 345 in a preparatory course; and in addition 3,861 school teachers were put through a short training course. The graduates of the main course numbered 2,270 men and 525 women. In the same course the average number of male pupils in a school was 233, of females 75; the average number of teachers in a school was 18; the average number of pupils to one teacher 14. Lastly, the average cost of a school was about £5,000 of a pupil about £19.

456. Every prefecture is bound to establish at least one normal school; smaller local bodies and private persons are not permitted to do so. At present there are 57, one prefecture having 3, eight having 2 apiece, and the rest one each. Efforts are now directed to getting normal classes for girls established. There may be separate schools for the sexes, or they may be taught in separate departments of the same school; and at present there are 23 schools for men, 7 for women, and 27 which admit both; but 11 prefectures still make no provision for the special training of female teachers, obtaining those whom they want from their higher girls' schools. Male pupils greatly predominate, numbering 11,600 in the main course to 2,500 females. The schools are under the control of the local governor, subject to the general supervision of the Minister, who may call the directors together to give them instructions, or may send inspectors to report on the schools. The chief inspector of each prefecture is supposed to look after its normal schools, but he has not always much time for inspection, and they are left pretty much to themselves, unless for occasional visits from the departmental inspector. Different prefectures, however, vary in this respect.

457. The general regulations for sites, buildings, and equipment are similar to those for secondary schools, but it is laid Establishment and supervision. Buildings and equipment.

down that at least 540 square feet should be allowed for each normal student, and at least 108 for each child in the attached practising school. Covered and open gymnasia and a dormitory are to be provided; for female students there should be a kindergarten; and when agriculture is taught land should be at hand for practice. The buildings are of the usual type, wooden, and commonly two-storied; often very extensive, and arranged in parallel rows, with the practising school at the back or on one side. A new female school in course of building was estimated to cost £7,200; another which accommodated 107 normal students, 450 girls in a higher school, and 190 children in a primary school, had cost £7,000, besides the land. Ground and buildings almost always belong to the school. In 1902 only £1,000 were spent on rent out of a total expenditure of nearly £290,000.

Boarding-
houses.

458. Great importance is attached to the residence of the students in the school dormitory, with a view to discipline and the formation of character. Several generally share the same room, the boys being commonly provided with bedrooms distinct from their studies; these are equipped with cots and mosquito-nets, and garnished with rifles and military equipment. Girls, on the other hand, often have combined rooms, and sleep on the matting after the Japanese manner. The dormitories are supervised by selected teachers, monitors being also appointed in each room. Some are equipped with small libraries for the use of the inmates.

Practising
schools.

459. All normal schools are now provided with an attached practising school, except one which utilises an ordinary town-school for this purpose. The school is organised after the fashion held likely to be most useful to the normal students, but it is thought desirable that there should be a special class arranged on the single-class system, *i.e.*, combining pupils of various years in one class. One ordinary regular teacher is expected to be provided for each class. These schools are usually of considerable size; in 1903 there were 52 of them, with

520 teachers and 23,329 children, giving an average of 450 children to a school and 45 to a teacher. There were also 10 kindergartens, with 13 teachers and 669 infants. The teachers are all regularly licensed, and are probably themselves all graduates of normal or higher normal schools; hence these practising schools are better staffed than the average outside school, quite independently of the normal students who practise in them, and it is not surprising that the original prejudice against them should have disappeared. Parents who formerly sent their children to other schools now vie with each other to get them, into these, and are more careful to make them attend regularly the average daily attendance standing higher here than elsewhere. The work done by the normal students in them is referred to subsequently.

460. The object of a normal school being to train teachers Organization. for the primary schools of that prefecture, the main course aims at turning out regular primary teachers; but there may also be (a) a preparatory course, (b) a shorter course for men only, (c) a kindergarten course for women, and (d) a training course for those who are already teachers. The main course covers 4 years for men and 3 for women; the shorter course lasts for 2 years and 4 months; the others usually only for a few months. Where there are both regular and shorter courses, the graduates of the former proceed to higher primary schools, the others to schools of the ordinary grade. These shorter courses are provided by 12 schools. Preparatory courses exist only in six. They were introduced in order to provide occupation for those who, having completed the full primary course at the age of 14 or over, had to wait until 17 to be admitted to the regular normal course; but the age of admission has been lowered to 16 for boys and 15 for girls, and some of the candidates take two or three years of the middle school course before joining the normal school. Temporary training courses similar to those marked (d) above are often organised by rural districts or other local bodies independently of the normal schools, but 39 of the latter provide

them. Ten have kindergartens. Male and female classes, or main and simpler classes, may not be combined; nor may the number of pupils in one class exceed 40. The working year is 45 weeks, and the number of weekly hours usually 34; but both may be reduced, if that is rendered necessary by the heat of summer. The long vacation lasts about 6 weeks, including all August.

Admission.

461. A rule is published that the number of pupils to be admitted should be adequate to turn out annually a number of graduates not less than one-twentieth of the number of classes in the district fed by the school, this number being obtained by dividing two-thirds of the children of school age by 70 (the limit of a class), *e.g.*, if there were 100,000 children of school age, the admissions ought to be sufficient to produce not less than 47 graduates. But it may be doubted whether much attention is paid to this rule; the admissions seem to be regulated by financial and other considerations, one school, for instance, reducing its admissions at a stroke from 80 to 40 for the sake of economy. The number of applicants is very great; in 1897 only 33 per cent. of them could be admitted, in 1901 not 25 per cent., and in 1902 not 22 per cent., only 4,000 being enrolled out of 19,000 applicants. Boys are admitted between the ages of 16 and 20, girls between 15 and 20, after a scrutiny of their physique, conduct, and attainments. None may be admitted whose constitution, mind, sight, hearing, lungs, heart, or other organs are in any way affected. An entrance examination in Japanese, arithmetic, geography, and history is held at the rural district offices at the end of February or beginning of March, and the candidates are also questioned orally with reference to their character and intentions. Some come from the second or third year of the middle school, but most from the higher primary, and they have to bind themselves to serve as teachers in that prefecture for 10 years in the case of men, and 5 years in the case of women. Those, however, who pay their own way at the normal school need only serve for 3 years and 2 years respectively. The train-

ing of the rest is a heavy expense to the prefecture, so that every care is taken not to admit any but those likely to prove thoroughly competent. Pupils thus selected are admitted provisionally for a few months, at the end of which the weakest are liable to be turned out. This weeding goes on more or less for a couple of years. In 1902, of those attending the regular, simpler, and preparatory courses, 543 left before graduation, or nearly 10 per school. Of these, 219 left for want of proficiency, 171 on account of illness, 3 for family reasons, 22 were expelled, 75 died, and 53 were "struck off."

462 In most normal schools all the regular students are Daily life. required to live in the dormitory, and in any case the majority do so. No tuition fee is charged, and it is usual to supply the students with food, clothes, and all other necessities, except books; sometimes a shilling a month is added for pocket-money. One school, however, of those visited supplied the books, but not the food, for which 8-10 shillings were charged monthly. Clothes cost about 28 shillings a head yearly, or about £ 5 for the whole course, white suits being supplied for summer, dark warm clothes for the rest of the year. Classes are held for 50 minutes, followed by 10 minutes' recess; about 6 hours a day are spent in this manner, in addition to which the students work for at least 2 hours in the evening. They are encouraged to take part in tennis, base-ball, or rowing, besides the compulsory drill and other physical exercises; and if a student is thought to be shutting himself up too much, the teachers make him go out. Athletic sports are held in spring and autumn. Part of the afternoon, or the whole of Sunday, may be spent with friends in the town, provided that the student is in by supper-time, 5-30 or 6 p.m. The teacher in charge of the dormitory goes round at night to see that all are in, and that they are not studying too late, 9 or 9-30 being bed-time. The Minister's report for 1896 notes that *beri-beri* was very prevalent amongst normal students, apparently because the great rise in the price of commodities made it difficult to supply sufficiently nutritious food to the

boarders. This difficulty, however, has been overcome, and the students as a whole are a sturdy body.

" Their professors give them lectures upon the microscopic study of cellular tissues, upon the segregation of developing nerve-structure, upon spectrum analysis, upon the evolution of the colour-sense, and upon the cultivation of bacteria in glycerine infusions. And they are none the less modest and knightly in manner for all their modern knowledge, nor the less reverentially devoted to their dear old fathers and mothers whose ideas were shaped in the era of feudalism.* "

Elsewhere Mr. Hearn comments on the strictness and military character of the discipline in these schools, and the attention paid to neatness, cleanliness, and deportment in general. When a student encounters a teacher, he is expected to halt, bring his feet together, and bow; and the same mark of respect is shown by the male students to the female teachers in combined schools. All this makes it more difficult to understand a recent *émeute* in a normal school, full particulars of which have not reached me, but which led to 220 students out of 240 being rusticated for an indefinite time.

Subjects of
study.

463. It is laid down that particular care should be taken to develop obedience, sympathy, dignity, loyalty, and patriotism in those who are to be teachers; punctuality and regularity are also essential. Their attention must be drawn to the method of teaching as well as to the subject-matter, scrupulous accuracy of language should be required, and the students should be encouraged to improve themselves by private study and enquiry, instead of relying solely on their teachers. The curriculum, of course, conforms to the requirements of the primary school course. For men it includes morals, pedagogics, Japanese and Chinese, history, geography, mathematics, physics, chemistry, natural history, penmanship, drawing, music, and physical exercises. English, agriculture, commerce or manual work may be added; in fact, one at least of the last three will in future be necessary, as these extra subjects are being insisted on in the higher primary schools. Already 45 out of 57 schools provide courses in some or all of them, English being included in 40

* Hearn, *Glimpses of Unfamiliar Japan*, p. 157.

cases. For women the amount of science is reduced, and "household management" is added; and the science is also cut down in the simpler course for men provided by some schools. In most cases, as is fitting, rather more of the subject is studied than is absolutely necessary for the teacher's work; history, for instance, includes something of general history as well as that of Japan; mathematics includes something of algebra and geometry, especially in their practical applications, as well as arithmetic. Under the head of science the students are taught how to give object-lessons on specimens of a zoological or botanical character, or on common phenomena, microscopes being provided for class use; and, as in the middle schools, many of the science teachers seemed keen enough on their subjects, and ingenious in devising models and apparatus. Under English, reading, paraphrasing, grammar, conversation, writing, composition, and the method of teaching them are prescribed; but in 1902 only two of the schools had a foreign teacher, probably shared with the local middle school. The language is of use to a teacher for studying books of reference, if for no other purpose; but it may be doubted whether the ordinary teacher takes the trouble to keep it up, especially in those districts where it is not taught in any of the primary schools. For students who intend to go on to the higher normal school English is essential. For agriculture the schools possess small plots of ground, on which they grow rice, barley or vegetables; sometimes there is also a small garden useful to the botanical teacher. The produce is sold when of sufficient value; one school was particularly proud of its cabbages. Barley is not a popular crop, because it occupies the ground for the whole season; the boys prefer crops that grow quickly and can then be changed. Different manures are tried, and notes kept of the number of days required by each crop, and so forth. For "manual work" simple work with wood, bamboo, common metals, paper, or clay, and the method of teaching it, are prescribed. Some schools have regular carpentry classes, but the present tendency is to leave work of an industrial character to the industrial schools which have sprung

up everywhere. A typical normal school time-table is given in the appendix.

Practical
training.

464. The time devoted to practice in the attached school varies in the different institutions from two hours a day for three months to three hours a day for a year. It is supervised mainly by the regular teachers of the primary school, and not by the professors of the normal school. One student teaches, whilst other members of his class sit in the background and listen; in some cases they are supposed to make notes for subsequent discussions, but I never saw any one doing so, and generally an oral exchange of opinions is all that is required. No marks are assigned for such work, but the supervising teachers note the quality of the work done, and talk over their notes from time to time. Model lessons are also given. The student told off to teach may receive some preliminary advice from the regular teacher, but is not required to draw up any notes of the lesson in advance; this was said to be unnecessary, as the work consisted only of explaining a text-book. I witnessed an English lesson being given in the presence of some normal students by a regular teacher, and though I could not follow much of it myself, the method and skill of the teacher made a marked impression on my interpreter. On the other hand, some of the lessons given by normal students themselves left anything but a favourable impression; not that I could understand what it was all about, but the classes were so disorderly and inattentive. In some places no supervisor was present; some of the regular staff had perhaps been drafted to the army. In one case, for instance, children of the third and fourth years were doing arithmetic; two or three normal students were standing about the room, six or seven others were sitting on a bench at the back. A small boy, standing on a bench, was trying to work out a sum at the top of the blackboard which was almost out of his reach; the rest of the class was extremely disorderly, the children constantly turning round to each other to joke and play the fool. In the case of physical exercises the presence of a number of normal

students is very beneficial, as they can move about amongst the children, putting them into the right positions and smartening them up generally, a point in which the average primary school is somewhat lax. And in the play-ground it is extremely pleasant to see the students entering heartily into the games of the children during the periods of recreation.

465. The course of study for women is shorter by one year, and the standard somewhat lower. The subjects are slightly modified in some cases. Thus, morals includes the social duties and customs of Japanese women, and etiquette; pedagogics includes the training of infants; and household management is added. This subject comprises clothes, food, residence, sewing, the rearing of children, book-keeping, and the methods of teaching the same. Cooking in foreign as well as Japanese style is sometimes taught. A specimen time-table is given in the appendix. Course of study for women.

466. All schools have terminal examinations, the results of which are reckoned in for the annual result, with or without the ordinary day-marks. Examination and graduation. The year beginning in April, the weakest students are weeded out in July, to the extent of perhaps 5 out of 60; and at the end of the year perhaps a few more go. But most schools are chary of making a backward student repeat a year's course on account of the expense of his maintenance; so that, if not turned out altogether, he is allowed to go forward, and the graduating classes are usually passed *en masse*. One school visited had admitted 40, of whom 35 would probably graduate; another 50, of whom 42 would graduate; another 60 boys and 35 girls, of whom 50 and 30 would graduate. In one case the whole class of 44, in another the whole class of 65, had graduated successfully. One school had examinations at irregular intervals, but with due notice to the class; another sent its new graduates and some of the teachers on a three weeks' tour to Osaka and other important places; sometimes the graduates make a little tour in their own district, to visit various schools and see methods of teaching. They enjoy the following privi-

leges :—They are entitled to prefectural licenses as primary teachers ; they are qualified for posts as “ general civil officials ;” they may postpone their military service till 28, and need not serve for more than one year ; whilst those who are actually teaching in public schools need not serve for more than six weeks. As in other Japanese schools, the alumni seem glad to keep up the tie of connection, and the school authorities continue to take an interest in their welfare. One director remarked that he often went round the prefecture to see how his graduates were getting on ; another had a map with their stations marked on it, so that he could look them up when convenient. When the farmers are specially busy, and the primary schools consequently closed for a few days, many of the teachers seize the opportunity to visit the capital of the prefecture, and to see how their old training-school is getting on.

School
hygiene.

467. The physical training, combined with military drill, is thorough, and normal students are practically a body of young soldiers even before their military service. School doctors have been appointed, the periodical examinations being carried out more strictly than in the case of younger students, and the results reported to Tokyo. In 1902, 63 per cent. of the males and 60 per cent. of the females were returned as “ strong,” 34 per cent. and 37 respectively as “ medium,” leaving a very small percentage of weaklings. Normal sight in both eyes was possessed by 86 per cent. of the males and 92 per cent. of the females. In some places the doctor visits the school almost daily ; sick-rooms are provided, and even a little practical instruction in the medical art is given. Though their work is hard, a good deal of relief from it is provided, and there are few complaints of students being made ill by overwork ; out of more than 15,000 only one in a hundred is obliged to give up his studies on account of ill-health.

Libraries,
etc.

468. Every school has a small reference library for the teachers, but not all have one for the pupils ; where this does exist, it is very small, the books being mostly presented by

teachers on the occasion of their joining or leaving the school. The science teachers naturally have a small museum of specimens, to which those who are energetic continually add with the help of their classes; in one school I came across a fine collection of insects made in this way. It is seldom that a lecture is given by an outsider, and the use of the magic lantern is ignored or despised. "Small children like it," and accordingly students may be shown how to work a lantern, but the supply of slides is very small and worthless.

469. Thirty-seven schools have special training courses for teachers already employed in primary schools. In 1902 more than 4,400 men and nearly 1,300 women passed through such courses, and at the end of the year 3,800 were attending them. Some schools open three such courses in the year for three months at a time; others admit 20 teachers at a time for a month's training in some specified subject, such as botany or needle-work; in others, again, ordinary primary teachers are admitted for a year in order to qualify themselves for higher primary schools, the clever ones completing the necessary work in a shorter time. Training courses for teachers.

470. The staff of a normal school includes a director, instructors, assistant instructors, and teachers for the practising school. Where there are not more than 4 classes, an instructor and an assistant instructor are to be provided for each; with from 5 to 7 classes there may be an instructor or assistant less than would be given by this proportion; with more than 7 classes one instructor must be added for each. For special subjects, such as English, agriculture, etc., special instructors must be provided; one up to a limit of 8 classes, and beyond that two. When extra training courses are organised the staff must be increased in proportion. The instructors are required to have regular licenses from the Minister of State; unlicensed men may only be engaged temporarily, but it is stated* that in

* *Japan by the Japanese*, p. 233.

1902 out of 1,032 teachers, 216 (or 21 per cent.) were not licensed. They are appointed or dismissed by the local governor, that is, in practice, by the director. The director himself is appointed from Tokyo, the following being eligible :—Those who have qualified for appointment as higher officials ; graduates of higher normal schools ; University graduates connected with public education for more than a year ; those who have been connected with public education for 3 years, are of *hannin** rank, and are drawing more than £3 a month. The director (who is invariably a man) may be, and sometimes is, ordered by the local governor to inspect primary schools in the prefecture. In 1903 the 57 normal schools had 938 male and 93 female teachers, giving an average of 18 to each school. The ordinary weekly hours for a teacher are 18 22 ; the director usually limits himself to a little moral teaching, but I came across one who taught for 10 hours a week mathematics and morals. Four or five of the staff are selected to take charge of the dormitory by turns. The normal, like the middle schools, have been characterised in the past by the extraordinary migratoriness of the teachers ; there are generally a few who have served in the same institution for 20 years or more, but the average service of the rest is sometimes only two or three years. Some schools post a diagram of the length of service of their teachers, in which this brevity comes out remarkably. By equalising salaries the Department has done something to check these transfers, and there are schools which have not witnessed many changes in the last 5 years ; but a natural result of the migrations has been a want of intimacy between teachers and their pupils.

Teachers' pay and pensions.

471. The salaries of directors are paid by the National Treasury, and are graded in 7 classes, ranging from £80 to £180 a year ; under special circumstances as much as £200 may be paid. The total amount paid under this head in 1901 was £5,829, which gives an average of £102 for each school. Instructors are graded in 11 classes, drawing from £2 10s. 10

* Officials appointed by the Head of the Department.

£7 10s. a month; whilst assistant instructors and teachers in the practising school draw from 30 shillings to £5 a month, the lowest grade being reserved for females. Should a teacher fall sick he can get his full pay for 30 days, and then half-pay for 60 days more; no medical attendance is provided. The rules for pensions and gratuities are similar to those for primary schools, except that normal teachers contribute 1 per cent. of their pay towards pension. In 1902-3 the National Treasury granted £372 as pensions to 19 normal school teachers, or nearly £20 apiece; an average pension of £9 was granted to the families of 3 deceased persons; and an average bonus of £3 to 8 persons. Gratuities amounting to £798 were also awarded to 96 retired teachers. The amount of money paid into the Treasury on this account was £1,320, of which £658 came from the staff of schools, and the balance from public bodies.

472. In 1902 the total expenditure of 57 schools was over Finance. £290,000, or nearly £5,100 apiece, the average cost of each pupil being £19. The schools visited cost from £3,000 for 208 pupils to £8,100 for 584. The principal heads of expenditure bore the following proportions:—Salaries 29 per cent., travelling expenses 1, pupils' expenses 36, rent 0·3, furniture, books and apparatus 7, articles of consumption 2, buildings 16, repairs 3, and miscellaneous 5·7. Only 3·4 per cent. of this expenditure could be met out of income, leaving over 96 per cent. to be paid out of local taxes. The income amounted to £10,800, half of which came from the National Treasury for the directors' salaries, and the other half £3,900 were derived from fees, presumably those of the practising schools for the most part. In order to reduce the burden on local funds, normal schools are encouraged to create school stock property and reserve funds, but so far the amount accomplished in this direction has been insignificant.

Higher Normal Schools.

473. For the training of teachers for the local normal and History. secondary schools the Government maintains two higher normal

schools for men and one for women. Those at Tokyo, for men and women respectively, are amongst the oldest schools in Japan, having originated in simpler forms in 1874 and 1877. The former has 71 teachers and 623 pupils, the latter 46 teachers and 367 pupils; and between them they have graduated many hundreds, the great majority of whom are engaged in the teaching profession. A fresh school for men was opened at Hiroshima in 1902, and now has some 300 students, though eventually it will have 500. These numbers show a remarkable growth since 1892, when there were 20 teachers to 80 pupils only in the male school, and 15 teachers to 84 pupils in the female. At that time only graduates of normal schools were admitted; but in 1894 middle-school graduates were made eligible, and the course was extended from 3 years to 4. A few years later the subjects were judged to be too numerous and the strain on the pupils too great, so the courses were sub-divided, as will be shown below.

Buildings, and
equipment.

474. The Tokyo higher normal school moved into new buildings on the outskirts of the city in 1903. The land and buildings cost from £40,000 to £50,000, but more land is required for the practising schools, which are at present far away, with the exception of one primary section. The corresponding school for females occupies buildings now nearly 30 years old, and covets an extension. The class-rooms, however, are spacious, and there is one splendid room to accommodate all the girls at double desks, each provided with an electric lamp; a screen at one end conceals the throne-room occupied by the Empress when she visits the school. A library and reading-room are provided; and the compound was extremely lively during the recess, girls of the attached schools running vigorously about, shouting, swinging, and playing. In the case of the newest of these schools, that at Hiroshima, the land (720,000 square feet) was given by the city, and the buildings are to cost £30,000, whilst about £3,500 are being expended on furniture, £3,000 on books, and £3,000 on apparatus.

475. For practising purposes the higher normal schools ^{Practising schools} for men have a middle and a primary school attached to each, whilst that for females has a girls' higher school, a primary school, and a kindergarten. The middle school at Tokyo has the usual course of 5 years, with a tuition fee of 5 shillings a month ; it has 28 teachers to 331 pupils ; and the number of applicants is double of the number of vacancies. On the other hand, 10 per cent. leave or are expelled in the course of the year. The primary school contains 584 children, with 23 teachers, and is divided into three sections. The first represents a many-classed primary school, with an ordinary course of 4 years, and a higher one of 2 only, after which the pupils pass to the middle school ; consequently it is limited to boys, 259 in number. The second section represents a many-classed school, both ordinary and higher, with 4 years for each ; here there are 138 boys and 74 girls. The third represents a single-classed school with ordinary and higher courses of 4 years each, and a supplementary course of 2 years ; here are 50 boys and 64 girls. The first section pays a monthly fee of 4 shillings ; the higher part of the second section pays 2 shillings ; and the rest are free. Excursions and conversational meetings of parents and surties are arranged ; as also a monthly " national memorial meeting " to encourage conversation on important historical facts and personages.

The higher girls' school attached to the female higher normal school has a regular course of 5 years, and a special one of 3 ; there are 13 teachers to 319 pupils, and a monthly fee of 4-5 shillings is charged. The primary school has 492 children, with 17 teachers, and is divided into three sections, one of which leads on to the secondary school, another being single-classed. A fee of 3 shillings is taken here, and owing to the number of applicants an enquiry is held into their mental and physical condition. There is also a kindergarten, with 167 infants, and 6 teachers, the poorest being admitted free, whilst the rest pay 2 shillings a month.

Admission. 476. Candidates for admission to the preparatory course of the male school must be healthy, of good character, and graduates of a normal school, or of a Government, public, or recognised private middle school. An entrance examination is held at the various prefectures in February; last year there were over 1,000 candidates, of whom 111 were admitted. The students are said to be poor on the whole; some are sons of teachers, officials, or traders, but most belong to the agricultural class. The conditions of admission into the female school are similar; candidates must be unmarried, between 17 and 22, healthy, and of irreproachable character, and must have graduated from a normal school, or girls' higher school with a four years' course. The examination papers are sent to the prefectures, and there are about 700 applicants; 75 are admitted so as to form three classes of 25 each. At the male school 11 were sent away in the course of the year for non-proficiency, one left for private reasons, and one died; at the female school 14 left on account of sickness or private reasons, and one died.

School life. 477. The school year begins in April, and its divisions are the same as in the secondary schools, the number of working days being 230. The students are required to live in the dormitory (of which there is in these schools alone a permanent superintendent), but are given more freedom than in the local normal schools in consideration of their greater age and attainments; for a graduate of a middle school is from 17 to 19, a graduate of a normal school is at least 20. The students get up at 5-30 or 6 A.M., breakfast about 7, have dinner at 12, and supper at 5-30 or 6. School hours are from 8 to 3 or 4, with an interval for dinner; on Saturdays from 8 to 12 only. Lights in the dormitory are put out at 10, but some read for a little longer with candles. The usual student's uniform is worn, with the regulation cap.

Courses of study. 478. The course covers 4 years for both sexes, but in the case of men the first year is devoted to preparatory work. There may also be a post-graduate course of 1 or 2 years;

special courses, opened when necessary for the supply of teachers in particular subjects; and elective courses for those who wish to make a special study of one or more regular subjects. These last receive certificates entitling them to teach those subjects only. This is found convenient by students who are weak in other subjects, as well as by some who fail at the annual examination, and are ashamed of continuing for another year in the same regular class.

479. The following details of the curricula for males apply primarily to the Tokyo school, that at Hiroshima being of recent origin and hardly fully developed as yet. For the *preparatory course* the subjects and weekly hours are :—Morals 1, Japanese 3, Chinese classics 3, English 10, mathematics 4, logic 2, drawing 2, music 2, gymnastics 3; total 30. Curricula
for males.

The *main course* is divided into several sections, of which each student takes up one. These sections have in common morals (2 hours weekly, except for science men, who are content with 1); psychology and pedagogics, 2·5; English, 3·5 (except in the English section); and gymnastics, 2·3. German (or in one case French) and music are optional. The other subjects are as follows:—

Japanese and Chinese section.—Japanese 6·7 hours; Chinese 6·7; history, 3 for two years; philosophy, 2 in the last year; science of language, 3 in the last year.

English section.—Japanese and Chinese, 2·3; English, 13·15; history, philosophy, and philology, as before.

Geography and History section.—Geography, 4·5; history, 8·9; law and economics, 3·4; Japanese and Chinese, 2·3.

Physics and Chemistry section.—Mathematics, 3·6; physics, 4·7; chemistry, 5·7; astronomy and meteorology, 2 in the last year; drawing and manual work in wood or metal, 2.

Mathematics and Physics section.—Mathematics, 6·8; physics, 4·7; chemistry, 1·5; astronomy, meteorology, drawing, and manual work, as before.

Natural Science section.—Botany, 5·6; zoology, 3·6; physiology and hygiene, 4 in the first year; mineralogy and geology, 3·5; agriculture, 4 for five terms; drawing, 2 for three terms.

The weekly hours are from 26 to 29, and in every case the last term of the last year is reserved for practical work in teaching.

The language sections are said to be the least popular, because affording fewer openings for teachers; so many others are available. The work as a whole is thought to be rather too heavy, partly owing to the zeal of the professors and students, both of whom are keenly alive to their responsibility.

Other
courses.

480. For the *Post-graduate course* the subjects are morals, pedagogics, educational legislation, administrative law, sociology, philosophy, æsthetics, experimental psychology, school hygiene, special pedagogics, child study, and practical exercises in teaching; the last is compulsory, whilst of the rest four may be taken.

Special courses extending over 8 terms are opened from time to time in order to train teachers in special subjects in a short period, the subjects varying according to requirements. Thus, in 1901 courses were provided in Japanese and Chinese, in mathematics, and in English; in 1902 courses in morals and gymnastics, in geography and history, in physics and chemistry. The most popular of these seems to have been English, taken by 88, as against 15 in morals and gymnastics, and 25 in mathematics. The general distribution of pupils at that time was as follows:—Preparatory course, 129; main course, 236; post-graduate course, 6; elective courses, 12; special courses, 240.

Subjects of
study.

481. A few notes are appended on specific subjects of study.

Morals.—In the preparatory course the director himself lectures on what a student's aims should be, the proper method of study, etc., whilst an assistant professor gives lectures introductory to the science of morals. In the main course lectures are given on the history of Eastern and Western ethics, on ethics as a science, and on the method of teaching the subject. No text-books are used, but the lecturers submit their syllabus to the director for approval.

Foreign Languages.—All learn English, a good many German, a few French, a very few both German and French. I found a Japanese lecturing to a class of about 20 men of the second year on Tyndall's Belfast address, the explanation being given

entirely in Japanese. Another class of the same year was reading an English version of Lessing's *Nathan the Wise* with a foreigner, who explained that he had chosen this book chiefly because it was available at the shops and cheap. Note-books were not in evidence, but a few notes were made in the texts; there was little attempt to answer questions. The lecturer informed me that he also lectured on a period of literature, usually dictating notes. The senior class was stated to be unusually good; he had been reading Burns and Carlyle's *Heroes* with them, and some of the class had insisted on learning a little Latin in order to understand English etymology better.

Philosophy.—Technical terms and some of the leading points in the history of European philosophy are explained, Eastern philosophy being dealt with under the heads of morals and Chinese classics. In the preparatory class formal logic is taught by means of lectures.

Mental work.—Both carpentry and metal work are taught, partly to give science students some practical knowledge of mechanics, and to enable them to make and repair apparatus; partly because the subjects are practised in some primary schools, and therefore in the local normal schools as well.

Practical training in the attached schools is given in the last term. The students are divided into groups corresponding to the primary and middle classes, and each teaches for some days, while the rest attend and criticise. They are supervised by the teachers of the attached schools, sometimes also by their own professors. In addition model lessons are given. I, however, had no opportunity of seeing any of this work.

482. An examination is held at the end of each academic year. In the preparatory class one or two per cent. fail; in the main course a very few may fail in the first year, almost none in the others. Those who fail must continue in the same class, unless they take up an elective course instead; but if they fail very badly they may be turned out.

483. The female school has three main courses—literary, scientific, and art. They all include morals, pedagogics, <sup>Examina-
tions</sup> <sup>Curricula
for females.</sup>

- * Japanese, English, household management, and physical exercises, the other subjects being as follows :—

Literary course.—Chinese classics, history, geography.

Science course.—Geography, mathematics, physics, chemistry, natural history, drawing.

Art course.—Penmanship and drawing.

Penmanship, drawing, or music may be added wherever not already included. The first course claims 116 pupils, the second 76, and the third 85. The weekly hours are from 26 to 30, the third section devoting 12 or 13 to household management alone. In the second term of the last year about 10 hours a week are spent in the attached schools, and the last term is wholly devoted to them. For moral teaching the school uses its own syllabus based on the Imperial Rescript. There are neither prizes nor punishments, though perhaps one girl may have to be sent away in the course of two or three years.

The Hiroshima school. 484. A few words may be added on the new school at Hiroshima. The courses and sections here are similar to those at Tokyo, though the practising schools are not ready yet. The students are picked men from all over Japan, the director travelling about a good deal in search of suitable candidates; each prefecture recommends three or four, who come to the school to be examined medically, and are then questioned as to their character and intentions. Only graduates of middle or normal schools who have stood within the uppermost quarter of their class are eligible. One of the professors is permanent superintendent of the dormitory, the rooms in which accommodate eight men apiece. At first the school bore all expenses, but the students are now being charged 8 shillings a month. All learn German from the second year of the main course, and the science teaching is partly in English, partly in German, and partly in Japanese. The English teacher was reading *Evangeline* with the third-year class, to be followed by lectures on a period of literature during the fourth year.

Students and graduates. 485. At Tokyo, in the preparatory, main, special, and post-graduate courses, some of the students support themselves

wholly or partially, but the majority are supported by Government. In the elective courses they must support themselves and pay a tuition fee besides. The female school is beginning to make the girls supply their own clothes. The male students get some books lent them, and also bedding; some pay their other expenses, some receive from 8 to 14 shillings a month towards them. They probably require from £15 to £20 a year. Those entirely supported are bound to serve for 7 years after graduation; those partly supported serve for 5, and those who support themselves serve for 3. In the case of women these periods are reduced to 5, 3, and 2 years. Graduates in the special course must serve for 3 years. Male graduates are entitled to a license for normal, middle, and girls' higher schools; female graduates for the last only. Male graduates are also qualified for appointment as directors of normal schools, though not immediately, and enjoy the same military privileges as in the case of the ordinary normal schools.

The following particulars are given of the careers of the graduates of the male school at Tokyo:—In normal schools, 213; middle schools, 211; girls' schools, 25; higher normal schools, 31; other schools, 22; post-graduate course, 6; in Government offices, 22; abroad, 4; unemployed, 12; dead, 99; unknown, 929; total 1,574. In the case of the female school the graduates since 1891 are thus distributed:—In normal schools, 57; girls' schools, 164; other schools, 12; other employment, 1; unemployed, 45; married, 118; dead, 14; total 411.

466. At the male school an assistant doctor gives all his time to it, while a superintending doctor comes daily and makes a general examination twice a year. All the professors and students belong to an association which has departments for lectures and magazine, as well as athletics, the last including fencing, *judo* (wrestling), rowing, football, base-ball, tennis, swimming, and long walks. The students bring out a school magazine, and the alumni another. For the female students, also, athletic sports and exercises are organised. School hygiene, &c.

Teachers

487. The staff of the male school at Tokyo comprises a director, 38 professors, 7 assistant professors, 24 other teachers, and 3 foreigners ; whilst the female school has a director, 23 professors, 7 assistant professors, and 16 others. These figures yield an average of one teacher to every 8 or 9 pupils. The director must be qualified for the higher civil service, and must have served as a teacher of *sonin* rank* for at least a year. His main duties are to allot work to the staff, to prescribe the necessary rules, to appoint or dismiss employe's drawing £2 a month or less, to interchange items of expenditure when necessary, to submit an annual report, and to advise the Minister as to the promotion or otherwise of the officials under him. Teaching, therefore, is not one of them ; but like other high educational officers in Tokyo, the director probably combines a number of other duties with those of this post. The professors are also of *sonin* rank, and are nominated by the Department, though usually selected by the director ; they do about 16 hours weekly. Many of them have been abroad : the scientific and pedagogic men chiefly to Germany, whilst others visit England and America for various purposes, including new physical exercises, or fresh dances for the female students.

Teachers' pay
and pensions.

488. For directors there are six grades of pay, rising from £180 to £300 per annum ; for professors twelve grades, from £60 to £250 ; for assistant professors eight grades, from £40 to £120 ; whilst the rest are arranged in ten grades, drawing from 30 shillings to £7 10s. a month. Foreigners are paid from £25 to £35 a month. There is no such thing as furlough ; in case of sickness a teacher may get his full pay for 3 months, and then probably nothing. Nor is there any fixed age for retirement. A professor has been known to go on until he was 80, and then he only retired because he was getting inconveniently deaf. The pension rules are mainly similar to those already given under primary schools, except that the teachers contribute one per cent. of their pay.

* Officials appointed by the Premier.

489. The higher normal schools are maintained entirely by ^{Finance.} Government. It is indeed hoped that by the accumulation of a reserve these schools may in time become self-supporting, but no progress has yet been made in this direction, for as soon as a small reserve has been formed it is likely to be swept away for new land or buildings. In 1892 the male school cost £4,000, the female £3,700; in 1902 the former had risen to over £19,000, the latter to £9,800, whilst £5,600 were spent on the new school at Hiroshima. Salaries are put down at £8,920, £4,912, and £1,924 for the three respectively. The amount recovered in fees, whether from some of the normal students or from the attached schools, is not stated. Dividing by the total number of pupils, we find that the cost of a male student at Tokyo was £31, that of a female student £26.

Provisional Training Institutes.

490. Provisional institutes have been opened to meet the ^{Provisional} urgent demand for teachers by training men in the shortest possible time for service in middle and normal schools. A short training is perhaps better than none; but as most of the students come from the middle schools, and as the middle school education is admittedly not very satisfactory, it is doubted by some whether these express methods of training teachers will have very beneficial results. The institutes were initiated in April, 1902, and there are at present 5 of them, attached respectively to the Imperial University of Tokyo (for Japanese and Chinese, and natural science), the First Higher School (for physics and chemistry), the Second (for mathematics), the Third (for English), and the Tokyo School of Foreign Languages (also for English). The number of applicants for admission was 370, of whom 180 were enrolled; 11 left in the course of the year from illness or want of proficiency, the rest being thus distributed:—Japanese and Chinese, 33; natural science, 25; physics and chemistry, 20; mathematics, 30; English, 61. The majority of those admitted were graduates of middle schools, their ages varying from 17 to 30. The instructors employed are 57 in number, including 2 foreigners. No fees are levied for

tuition, and the annual expenditure is stated to exceed £26,000, in which case each pupil costs some £120, a figure that is incredible.

Courses of
study.

491. Students are admitted through an examination, and the working days are as in the higher normal schools, but the course lasts for two years only. All the courses include morals, pedagogics, and a minimum of 3 hours of English weekly. To the Japanese and Chinese course history is added; to the English course (in which that language receives 22-26 hours), Japanese and Chinese; to the mathematical course, physics and book-keeping; to the physics and chemistry course, mathematics; whilst the natural science course includes zoology, physiology, botany, mineralogy, physical geography, geology, anthropology, and astronomy. About 28 hours a week are scheduled. The Minister's report adds that the health of the students was indifferent, owing to the absence of gymnastics and the excessive study and labour.

Holiday Institutes.

Holiday
courses.

492. With the extension of education which followed the war with China the demand for teachers suddenly increased, and the number of those aspiring to further education also multiplied beyond the possibility of accommodation. As a means of partially meeting the difficulty holiday courses were instituted by the Department, by local bodies, by educational associations, and by individuals. They are held for not more than four or five weeks, usually, though not necessarily, in the summer vacation, and have two main objects, one being to give teachers additional knowledge on special subjects, as well as of the method of teaching, the other being to help students who are preparing for entrance examinations, or who wish to become teachers. The courses instituted by the Department are adapted for the teachers of normal, secondary, and technical schools, and for the prefectural inspectors of schools, the lecturers being professors of the imperial universities or other Government institutions. On the other hand, local bodies endeavour to

teach the teachers of primary and lower technical schools, employing as lecturers mainly the teachers of normal or secondary, or more advanced technical schools. The courses instituted by associations or individuals may be of either character; and there are also some which are organised purely for the profit of the promoters, well-known lecturers being employed in order to attract students. The public and private courses held in 1901 numbered 709 in summer and 82 in winter, 216 being public and 575 private. The number of auditors was over 16,000 at the former and 58,000 at the latter, the expense of the public courses being £2,976, and that of the private ones £7,668.

493. The Departmental courses were started as far back as 1887, only one, however, being held in each year, for the benefit of normal and secondary teachers, and being attended by from 24 to 69 auditors. But in 1897 three courses were opened, one of which was in agriculture, and attracted 178 students; and since then the number has steadily increased, until in 1903 there were 14 courses attended by 984 persons. They were of the following nature:—For middle school teachers, one course on the mineral kingdom; for normal, middle, and girls' school teachers, six courses on Japanese, gymnastics, method of teaching drawing, physiology and hygiene, mathematics, physics, chemistry, zoology, botany, and mineralogy; for normal and girls' school teachers, one course on education and gymnastics; for normal and middle school teachers and prefectural inspectors, one course on the method of teaching in primary schools and manual work; for normal, middle, and technical school teachers, one course on dyeing, weaving and designing; for normal, middle, primary, and agricultural school teachers, three courses on diseases of crops, hygiene of animals, civil engineering as related to agriculture, the teaching of agriculture, crops, and injurious insects; and for normal, middle, and commercial school teachers, one course on merchandise insurance, banking, and commercial geography.

To these may be added one for marine biological investigation, held annually at the marine laboratory belonging to the College of Science in the Imperial University of Tokyo, for the benefit of teachers of natural history in middle schools. The course, which lasts 3 or 4 weeks, is supervised by the faculty of the College. The use of the laboratory is also sometimes permitted to such teachers or other zealous students at other times, "so that in spring and summer there is a crowd of lovers of learning assembled there, and engaged in experiments to gain benefit from the examination of live animals, to observe their true state of existence in their element, and to learn the method of preparing and preserving specimens."*

Other courses. 494. The holiday institutes encountered by myself in the month of August were all for primary teachers, and as their vacation is short the course of instruction is commonly limited to a week at a time. In one prefecture a drawing institute was being held at one centre, an agricultural one at another. Another prefecture had organised a course on commercial subjects, there being none of the kind in the local normal school; about 150 teachers were attending this course, for which the Department provided a text-book, and the higher commercial school of Tokyo sent the teachers. In a third case, a week's course had just been held for manual work with split cane and dried peas, and a fresh one was opened in order to explain some new text-books or readers issued by the Department; 120 teachers were present, working from 7 till 10 A.M. A fourth institute was studying botany under teachers from a middle school, the members exercising themselves with *judo* (wrestling) in the intervals of class work. I heard also that two foreigners conducted a private institute in English in 1903 for the benefit of the secondary teachers of one prefecture only, which was so much appreciated that the local authorities got the Department to open a public one there in 1904; this was attended by about 70 teachers, and was worked entirely by foreigners, the author-

* *Education in Japan, 1904.*

ities being so well satisfied that they paid the lecturers 40 per cent. more than they had promised.

C.—The General Position of Teachers.

495. A Japanese professor who had had some experience of foreign countries remarked to the writer that, so far as *system* went, there was not much difference between Japan and America or Germany, though in some respects perhaps Japan was the better off, but that he would not say the same of the *teachers*. The zeal for education and the multiplication of schools have indeed outrun the supply of competent teachers; and in spite of normal schools and training institutes the difficulty seems more likely to increase than to diminish, for the teaching profession is not growing more popular with the best men. If it is a sound principle that a teacher should himself have had a higher grade of education than that which he attempts to communicate to others, a large number of the teachers of Japan would hardly come up to this standard, for when the graduates of normal schools are set aside, the majority of the primary teachers who remain are only graduates of primary schools; and in secondary schools there must be a large proportion of teachers who have not undergone any higher training themselves. It is not, of course, meant that anything else would be possible under the circumstances. On the other hand, in the higher ranks there are an unusual number who have had not only the best training which their own country could afford, but also the opportunity of extending it under distinguished teachers abroad, and this is especially the case with all sorts of scientific and technical subjects.

496. In old Japan, as in other parts of Asia, the status of the teacher was high; he often shared the life of his pupils, and was supported by their voluntary contributions. Some of this respect still lingers, especially in the country, but it is being undermined by a variety of causes, such as the professional character of the modern teacher, his migratory habits, and the growing attractiveness of more lucrative pursuits of a commercial or

industrial character. In this connection a few remarks¹ of a Japanese writer may be quoted from the *Japan Mail*:

"Some 20 years ago, when I was myself living in the country, the village school-master was treated with profound respect, being always spoken of as *Sensei Sama*.² No social entertainment was given in the neighbourhood where he was not invited, and he occupied a seat of honour among the guests. He was consulted by the villagers on a variety of topics. But now, wherever one goes, one hears remarks unfavourable to the primary school teachers. They are said to be 'conceited,' to be 'given to eating and drinking,' to be men 'without character,' and so on. The middle schools are even worse than the primary schools; not only in my opinion do they fail to improve the minds of the students, but they do much to injure them. All this is the effect of the stereotyped Departmental system of education. It is the practice of the Department in various parts of the country to appoint very young men as heads of schools. Under these are found teachers of 20 years' experience. The idea is that the young men will institute reforms. But reforms that are not founded on experience are apt to do more harm than good. It is true that many of the old teachers are mere fossils, but then on the other hand the younger men are but raw experimenters. In few cases is the tenure of office long enough to allow of the carrying out of many reforms."

It has been remarked already that the professional courses of the Universities now tend to attract the best men, and something of the kind seems to hold lower down in the scale. The result is that many of the present teachers have little knowledge, pursue inferior methods, display scanty interest in their classes or their work. It is universally allowed that they are poorly paid, and in addition many of them are worked for so many hours in the week that they have no leisure for self-improvement, even if they had the desire. What Japan wants most, remarked a foreigner, is *enthusiastic* teachers, in place of so many who go through their routine, conscientiously perhaps, but without any life. Women, it is true, are not as yet tempted into the paths of commerce or industry, but if the men begin to look down upon teaching as a profession, the women are likely to do so too.

Proportion
of female
teachers.

497. Of the whole body of 127,000 teachers, 21,000 are females, that is to say, 16·5 per cent. Of the teachers employed in kindergartens, all are women; in primary schools 16 per

² *Sensei*, teacher; *Sama*, a high title of respect.

cent. are so; in normal schools 9 per cent.; in girls' higher schools 64 per cent.; in miscellaneous schools 32 per cent.; in blind and dumb schools 25 per cent.; in special schools 1·4; and in technical schools 4·5. Or taking the whole number of female teachers, we find them distributed according to the following percentages:—Primary, 83·2; miscellaneous, 8·5; girls' schools, 3·6; kindergartens, 3·5; technical, 0·6; normal, 0·4; and special, and blind and dumb schools, 0·2.

498. It was a Japanese who drew my attention to the *Migrations* of teachers as unfavourably affecting their efficiency and their interest in the pupils. In the case of primary teachers this is not so marked, since the graduates of normal schools, at any rate, are bound to serve in their own prefecture for at least ten years; and the rural teacher commonly settles down in or near his own village and stays there. But in the normal and secondary schools the average stay of a teacher was at one time only about two years. The rapid increase of these schools created a great demand, and teachers went hither and thither in search of increased pay from the rivalry of semi-independent directors. At last the Department took steps to equalise salaries and to check undue promotion. The Indian student makes a fuss about being dragged from his own district to such a centre as Bombay or Poona, but the Japanese roams from one end of the country to the other. Tokyo, however, is the great centre of attraction; it draws to itself teachers and officials from all over the country, and when once they have familiarised themselves with the life of the capital, they depart to the provinces with regret, and seize the first opportunity of returning.

499. Every school of any size has a director distinct from *Directors*, the head teacher. In the lower grades the director undertakes some teaching, chiefly morals, and fills up hours left vacant by casual absences; but in the higher institutions he limits himself increasingly to supervision and administration, in which he is probably assisted by a manager, a secretary, and a large staff of clerks. It is true that many of these schools are of great size, and that there is said to be a good deal of routine work

about Japanese officialdom ; nevertheless, the Indian principal, harassed by his full share of the teaching in addition to all the office work and responsibility, can but envy the Japanese director his comparative leisure, his large staff of teachers and subordinates, his conveniences in the way of electric bells and telephones. In Tokyo, indeed, many of the directors are extremely busy men, but that is because they combine a variety of offices. The object, perhaps, is to compensate for the inadequacy of the salary of any one office ; but the principle seems carried rather far when we find the head of one of the most important institutions able to visit it only once a fortnight. The director practically appoints or dismisses his own staff, at times bringing some of them with him from his last post ; their promotion also depends on his recommendation, and on his being able to secure the necessary appropriation in his budget. Matters of discipline rest with him, the teachers simply reporting those whom it may be necessary to punish. Most of the foreign teachers seem satisfied with the way in which they are backed up if necessary ; but I heard of one case where a boy who had been grossly insubordinate was ordered to apologise and did not, and the director was too feeble to enforce his own order. Many, no doubt, are nervous about " strikes ", which may cost them their position ; they are disposed to favour leniency in the matter of examinations, and might throw a junior teacher over rather than run any risks from supporting him against the boys. In the earlier days of the present era most of the directors were figure-heads ; a few are so still.

Pay.

500. The rates of pay of teachers of various grades have been given under the corresponding heads, but may be recapitulated here. Ordinary regular teachers in primary schools receive from £1 to £7.5 a month, assistant teachers from £0.6 to £2 ; the average in an ordinary school being £1.45 for the regular and £0.85 for the assistant, in a higher school £2 for the regular and £1.25 for the assistant. (There are, however, many teachers who get much less than this.) In secondary schools officials of *hannin* rank receive from £1.5 to £7.5 a

month, those of *sonin* rank from £3·3 to £16·6. In higher schools and colleges the professors draw at the rate of £5 to £21 a month, assistant professors from £2·5 to £6·6. As far as public (not Government) schools are concerned, if the total amount paid in salaries to teachers is divided by the number of teachers, the following averages result for the monthly pay:—Primary schools, £1·25; middle schools, £3·91; girls' schools, £2·4; technical schools, £2·73; normal schools, £5·36. In order that these items may be compared with the pay of other occupations in life, a variety of details have been gathered from different sources and reduced to monthly rates in sterling. To begin at the top of the scale: the prime minister is said to receive £80 a month, a cabinet minister £50, along with an official residence and servants, and an entertainment allowance. A vice-minister receives £33·4 without a residence, but this is as much as the president of a bank or the manager of a large business enterprise would draw.* The chief justice draws £46, the other judges of the supreme court £41·6, but a judge of the lowest grade only £5. Many lawyers do not make more than 2 shillings a day, and few earn more than £5 a month.† Churches pay their preachers from £2·4 to £3 a month‡. In journalism the highest remuneration barely exceeds £10; from £2·5 to £4·1 is the usual pay.§ On the other hand, in the large cities a cooly may earn as much as £3 a month by his jinrikisha, and that with far more excitement, amusement, and independence than fall to the lot of a small official.¶ A policeman receives about £1·2 a month, and the police, it may be added, are spoken of with the utmost respect. They are above the suspicion of bribery, and would be insulted by the offer of a "tip." As for the army, a general draws £50 a month, a colonel £17·9, a major £10·2, a captain £6 or £7, a lieutenant £3·5 or £4·5, and a second lieutenant £3. In each case a

* Curtis, *Yankers of the East*, pp. 56, 57.

† Curtis, pp. 216, 220.

‡ Curtis, p. 420.

§ *Things Japanese*, p. 352.

¶ *Things Japanese*, p. 264.

house allowance is added, rising from £0.35 to £2.5; and twelve years ago a good house could be rented in Tokyo for 6 or 8 shillings a month, but now even a small one costs at least £1.8 or £2.* Mr. Hearn remarks that the Government has practically maintained under modern forms the old feudal principle, service in exchange for the means of simple living; and as all knew that Japan was poor and in danger, all were content to work for as little as possible. But there are signs that this state of mind may pass away.

Rise in the
cost of living.

501. Whilst the pay of the official classes has remained almost stationary in spite of the great rise in the cost of living, the earnings of artisans, etc., have considerably increased, as is shown in the following table based on statistics given in *Japan in the Beginning of the 20th Century*. The earnings are here given as monthly wages in sterling :—

	1887.	1901.
Carpenter	£ 0.67	£ 1.78
Blacksmith . . .	0.65	1.46
Tailor . . .	0.56	1.36
Weaver (male) . .	0.38	0.88
Do (female) . .	0.22	0.58
Servant (male) . .	0.13	0.27
Agricultural labourer .	0.16	0.26
Day labourer . . .	0.79	1.17

In addition an upper middle class has come into existence of persons rendered comparatively affluent by contracts, speculations, banking, mining, railways, and other forms of modern enterprise. Yet, even so, it has been stated by a Japanese newspaper that there are only 7 persons out of every thousand who make £270 a year.† In 1863 the farmers raised 30 million *koku* of rice and paid 22 millions to the Government; if they were taxed at the same rate now they would have to pay £28,000,000, whereas they actually pay only £3,800,000.‡ In consequence the farmer's manner of life has considerably improved; he

* Hearn, *Japan*, p. 450.

† Clement, *Handbook of Modern Japan*, p. 331.

‡ Gulick, *Evolution of the Japanese*, p. 277.

wears silk where formerly he could hardly afford cotton, and eats rice almost daily, whereas formerly he scarcely knew its taste.* Rice is the staple article of food, unless in very poor districts, where barley or millet may take its place; vegetables (especially beans and radishes), seaweed, eggs, and fish are also largely consumed. The chief drinks are tea and *sake*. Bread, fowls, and beef can be obtained in most large towns, and many families have a foreign dish or a foreign meal daily. "Foreign restaurants" are to be found in towns where there are practically no foreigners at all. In these respects the standard of living has certainly risen. The average prices of the forty principal staples of Japanese production are said to have risen 42 per cent. between 1896 and 1899, whilst house-rent has trebled or more in the last quarter of a century, and students who formerly managed on 22 shillings a month now spend at least 40.† A Japanese journal estimated the probable monthly expenditure of an economical family of six as £1.72 in 1889, but £2.88 in 1899.‡ If other petty expenses were included (and nothing is said in the estimate about clothes), such a family would require at least £3.5 a month. It results that small officials and teachers, with their fixed salaries, are often hard pressed by the constant rise in the price of living, in spite of the efforts made to improve the position of the lowest grades by the additional salary rules.

D.—Foreign Teachers.

502. The first "foreign adviser" of the Japanese may be said to have been the English pilot, Will Adams, who came there with a Dutch fleet in 1600, and was sent to the Shogun Ieyasu. Adams was furnished with a Japanese wife and an estate, retained (much against his will) permanently in the service, and after his death deified; the modern foreign employé not unfrequently complains that, after he has given the best

The foreign teachers.

* From a Japanese newspaper, 1898.

† *Things Japanese*, p. 236.

‡ *Calendar, Handbook*, p. 321.

years of his life to Japan, he is summarily dismissed. Since the re-opening of the country thousands of men have been employed, in every kind of work, to create the new Japan; and if we admire the aptitude of the pupils, it is hardly fair to overlook the able and conscientious work of the teachers. Much of this work has been done in darkness and silence; the Japanese do not advertise the work of their foreign employés, and prefer to enter the names of the figure-heads on the records. It seems to be generally allowed that the Japanese regard the foreigner with some suspicion. On the other hand, it was absolutely necessary to learn from him; but as soon as a Japanese could be found to do the work even tolerably well, the foreigner was dropped. In a burst of self-confidence after the China war this principle was extended even to the teaching of foreign languages, but with results which have led to a renewed demand for foreign assistance in this sphere at any rate. "An almost morbid anxiety," says Dr. Dyer, "to prove their independent competence impelled the Japanese to dispense prematurely with the services of foreign employés. Captain Brinkley believes that there is clear evidence that this suspicious mood on the part of Japan, which is so injurious to her own interests, is being replaced by more liberal sentiments; but in the meantime she has been induced to stand aloof from alien aids at a time when they might have profited her immensely, and to struggle without guidance towards standards of which she has as yet only a dim perception." (*Dai Nippon*, p. 195.) In 1890 there were 51 foreign teachers in Government schools, a number which had decreased to 31 in 1895, but has since risen to 67. Of these 20 come from Germany; 16 from England, and 12 from the United States; their united pay amounted to £23,368, or an average of £348 apiece. Or, taking all the schools, Government, public, and private, into account, in 1895 they employed 268 foreigners (101 of whom were women), whilst in 1902 there would appear to have been 579 employed, the same person being counted twice if employed in two schools. Americans were probably in the large majority. If we look at

the distribution of these teachers amongst the various grades of schools, the following figures may be extracted from the report for 1902-03:—Primary, 0; blind and dumb, 2; normal, 2; middle, 34; girls', 3; technical, 39; special, 75; miscellaneous, 350. Total, 505 for the public and private schools, to which 74 have to be added for Government institutions. Though no foreigners are shown here as teaching in primary schools, it is occasionally done, as I came across one myself in Yokohama. The majority of these teachers are engaged upon their respective languages.

503. Ordinarily, a foreign teacher is engaged by the director of the school, on a contract the period of which varies from one to three years; it may be renewed, but no single contract is for a longer term. The director may be able to find a suitable man on the spot, or he may utilise the services of a Japanese legation or a Japanese travelling abroad to select one for him; application is sometimes made to foreign experts, such as Lord Kelvin, or to the head of a college or other institution. In this connection it may be mentioned that the Young Men's Christian Association bring over a number of men from America as teachers of English, mostly in middle schools; for which purpose graduates fresh from the smaller American colleges are commonly selected, but men with University training or educational experience are also engaged for higher work. There are 20 or more in the country now altogether. This system has not escaped criticism. It is said that the men themselves are imperfectly educated and trained, that they only come for the sake of seeing a bit of the world instead of settling down as elementary teachers at home, that they stay such a short time as to be unable to get to understand the students and their difficulties, and that they bring down the market rate of salaries. For obvious reasons these men are drawn from the western side of America, and some of them are perhaps a bit rough, but I was assured by persons who should have been impartial that most of them at any rate were better trained than some of those outsiders who criticised them. As for salaries, the secretary of Recruitment.

the Young Men's Christian Association warmly denied that they cut prices. The Association pays them nothing; in that respect the men are independent, and must have enough to live on. For a middle school the minimum monthly pay is £15, and a single man can live in the interior on £10. It is stipulated, therefore, that men who take these places shall be bachelors, for a married couple would spend from £17 to £20. Some of the teachers are known to be helping their families at home, or paying off their own college expenses. It is, in fact, to the interest of the Association to keep up, or even raise, prices, in order to obtain good men, and to induce them to remain in the country. If a man proves competent and willing to work, they are only too glad to try to find promotion for him; and many do stay. The teachers make their contracts directly with the schools; but the Association stipulates that they shall stay at least 3 years, shall not leave a place without giving due notice to the Young Men's Christian Association, and shall use their opportunities for promoting Christianity. The schools are said to have no objection to this last; indeed, in some places the foreigner is allowed to hold a Bible-class in the school-building, and at least two local governors have specifically asked for Christians to be sent, as they had had disastrous experiences with men picked up from amongst those who drift to Japan. It should, however, be added, in connection with this Bible-teaching, that it is often popular with Japanese students, not from any religious interest, but because they have realised the enormous influence of Scriptural language, not only on our literature, but on our every-day phrases.

Conditions
of service.

504. A good many of the teachers of English are recruited from missionaries, or others who have found their way to the country for various purposes. A few notes were made of the rates of pay received by foreigners, *e.g.*, in a primary school £5 10 shillings a month; in a middle or normal school from £15; in a higher school from £22 to £30, or even £35; whilst in the Imperial University the average is about £57. While these rates are high compared with Japanese standards, they are

hardly so from the foreign point of view, when the greater expense of living is taken into account, especially in a place like Tokyo. Consequently some teachers serve in more than one school; I met one gentleman who taught in four. Sometimes the wife or daughter has an engagement also; for many ladies are employed, and not in girls' schools only. The hours are long, but the work is for the most part elementary, and many teachers have found time enough to study the history, language, literature, or other aspects of Japan. In many respects the country is decidedly more attractive to live in than India. It is true that the climate is found somewhat trying, by Americans especially, on account of the dampness of the atmosphere, and its deficiency in ozone; that the heat is decidedly great in summer; and that the missionaries find it necessary to take a holiday at some sanatorium, and an occasional furlough home. But, when all is said, the fact remains that the summer heat, though intense, is brief; and that for the greater part of the year Japan enjoys a climate that is cool, and often cold. In the north, and on the west coast, at any rate, the winters are extremely severe, whilst in the south a mild and delightful climate may be enjoyed by those who prefer it. Foreign children, too, thrive in the country; and when all allowance is made for the glamour cast over it by poets and geisha-struck travellers, the attractions of Japan are sufficient to counterbalance some inferiority of pay. The real disadvantage seems to be the insecurity of tenure. Some schools never make a contract for more than one year, and the longest is only for three; whilst the authorities bind themselves to nothing in the way of leave or pension. Many foreigners, of course, have spent long periods in the Japanese service, with satisfaction to themselves and their employers, who can be liberal when they see fit; they occasionally give such men leave for nine months or a year on full pay; they pay to some of them a small pension. The other day the widow of a professor, accidentally drowned during the summer vacation, received from the University a gift of £300; and many foreign teachers have been decorated by the

Emperor. On the other hand, a reactionary Minister may come into power any day and sweep out the foreigners wholesale, as happened a few years ago ; your own school can turn you adrift at three months' notice ; and after 18 years' service in one institution you may be dropped like a hot potato when a little economy is desired.

Teachers
and students.

505. Except those who utilise some of their leisure for proselytizing, the foreign teachers do not seem to have much to do with the students. The Indian professor who arrives at his college on the stroke of time, delivers a couple of lectures, and five minutes later is on his homeward way, does not perhaps fulfil all his unwritten obligations ; but nothing more is asked from the foreign teacher in Japan. The Japanese indeed might be sorry to see a foreigner seeking to gain influence over their students ; they regard their own morality as higher, they are afraid that their patriotism may be " corrupted." The foreigners, on their part, employed to teach large aggregates of boys for long hours at low rates, do not usually care to spend their leisure on the same boys ; some are scholars, who utilise their leisure in private researches, others have engagements elsewhere. It is evident that a man who teaches in three or four large schools cannot acquaint himself with the students of any of them. Some are afraid that if they offer private help to some, they will have to do it for all, and get no leisure at all ; whilst a young teacher who did offer practice in conversation to those who cared to attend, found only three do so with any regularity. Mr. Hearn, indeed, has given a pleasing picture of the relations possible between a sympathetic teacher and the boys of a middle school :—

" My favourite students often visit me of afternoons. They leave their foot-gear on the doorstep, enter my little study, prostrate themselves, and we all squat down together on the floor... .. Usually my young visitors stay a long time, and their stay is rarely tiresome. Their conversation and their thoughts are of the simplest and frankest. They do not come to learn..... They speak chiefly of things which they think have some interest for me. Sometimes they scarcely speak at all, but appear to sink into a sort of happy reverie. What they come really for is the quiet pleasure of sympathy. Not an intellectual sympathy but the sympathy of

pure good-will ; the simple pleasure of being quite comfortable with a friend. They peep at my books and pictures, and sometimes they bring books and pictures to show me..... Never by any possible chance are they troublesome, impolite, curious, or even talkative." •

But it is not every one who can derive so much satisfaction from the silences apt to occur on such occasions, whether in Japan or further west ; and Mr. Hearn himself had to confess later that the older the students grew, the more they drifted away from such intimacy with their foreign teacher.

Chapter XVI.—STUDENTS.

506. The Japanese school boy, with his round cheery face and (pace Mr. Hearn) his unbounded curiosity, is an engaging little person ; as he grows older he acquires a somewhat heavy, even sullen look, which may be partly due only to facial peculiarities, but partly perhaps corresponds to a real change within. Mr. Hearn, at least, tells us that the gentle boy who charms his foreign teacher by his earnestness, his trustfulness, his grace of manner, undergoes a transformation later on into something less attractive. In one of his early works† Mr. Hearn observed that higher education seemed only to widen the gulf between the Western and the Oriental, teacher and pupil drifting steadily apart instead of developing any ties of intellectual and emotional sympathy ; and he was inclined to explain this phenomenon as the result of the overtaking of the powers of the new generation, the excessive mental effort to adjust themselves to the new environment having rendered it impossible for them at the same time to reproduce the perfect courtesy and unselfishness of the older generation. Indeed, the decay of manners in the rising generation seems to have been as marked in Japan as in India, provoking discussions as to how far Japanese politeness is merely external, how far it may be based on something more solid and permanent. Happily, so far as the students at least are concerned, the nadir seems to have been reached and passed ; for it is generally allowed that their manners have considerably improved in the last ten years.

Students
and their
manners.

* *Glimpses of Unfamiliar Japan*, pp. 462-3.

† *Ibid.*, p. 663.

Their family relations are also better. At first sons educated on the new lines were apt to despise their old-fashioned fathers, who on their part could not understand their sons, and many family disputes were the result. Now those sons are themselves the fathers, and their sons cannot in turn despise the men who have helped to make Japan what she is. The disappearance of the *soshi* is another welcome sign. These were students who, having been unable to find employment under Government, or being dismissed for incompetence, took to political rowdyism in order to pick up a living ; and a few years ago they were spoken of as the curse of Japan. Politicians hired them as bullies during election time, and they were responsible for various assassinations and other outrages. Now, however, one hears little of them, the multiplication of commercial and industrial openings having had a beneficial effect, along with the weakening of the Oriental doctrine that office is the end of education. But there seems to have been a general improvement in public manners of late. It is said that ten years ago, after the successes against China, Japanese soldiers would behave in the most offensive manner to foreigners in the streets of Tokyo. This year I can testify from personal experience that it was possible to wander from one end of Japan to the other, and to mix with troops mobilised for the war, or returning sick and wounded, without experiencing the least incivility. As for the schoolboy proper, his manners are in some respects superior to those of the West, while the respectful bow which he gives to his teacher is very different from the careless saluté which many an Indian student tosses to his professor, when he condescends to notice him at all.

Intellectual
qualities.

507. It would be presumptuous indeed in a passing visitor to offer any decided opinions of his own on the mental and moral qualities of a whole nation ; I content myself, therefore, with summarising the views expressed by a number of writers, many of whom have had practical experience of Japanese students. Most of them agree that the Japanese mind is quick in observation and perception, so that it turns readily to scientific

pursuits; that the nature of their language and of the former system of education has developed an astonishing power of memorising by rote, similar to what we find elsewhere in Asia, so that the mind is easily stored with facts; but that the powers of reasoning and abstraction have not been developed to the same extent, and therefore the Japanese do not take so easily to mathematics or metaphysics. "One of the most marked characteristics of the Japanese mind," says Mr. Denning, who has known them long, "is its lack of interest in metaphysical, psychological, and ethical controversy. It is seldom that you can get them to pay sufficient attention to such questions to admit of their understanding even their main outlines. Our poetry and our philosophy and the mind that appreciates them are alike the result of a network of subtle influences to which the Japanese are comparative strangers." Similarly Mr. Hearn has remarked* that "in the study of Western music, Western art, Western literature, time would seem to have been simply wasted. These things make appeal extraordinary to emotional life within us, they make no such appeal to Japanese emotional life. When one compares the utterances which West and East have given to their dreams, their aspirations, their sensations,—a Gothic cathedral with a Shinto temple, an opera by Verdi or a trilogy by Wagner with a performance of *geisha*, a European epic with a Japanese poem,—how incalculable the difference in emotional volume, in imaginative power, in artistic synthesis!" In dealing with such a subject as English literature the Japanese student, like the Indian, has the additional perplexity created by the absolute difference between the society there depicted and his own, communistic, based on ancestor-worship, on the "three obediences," and so forth.

That the precocity and quickness to learn of the Japanese are very great, is also generally agreed; they receive ideas with great rapidity, but they are apt to throw them over again with equal speed. Foreign teachers have remarked their precocious

* *Kokoro*, p. 10.

gift for cool and fluent recitation or oratory, in which they far outstrip the average American boy. This readiness, however, to pick up the new and then to drop it again has often caused them to be charged with fickleness; to which Mr. Dening has objected that there was no lack of stability in old Japan, the rapid changes of modern times being due not to fickleness, but to the eager desire to *prove all things* in order that Japan might hold fast to the best. But, whatever fickleness there may have been as to means, it is the tenacity with which the Japanese leaders have adhered to certain objects in view throughout the present era that should excite our admiration. Nor can the men be charged with want of tenacity who have returned again and again, by day and by night, to those furious assaults on almost impregnable positions which have distinguished the present war. Similar pertinacity may be remarked in the educational sphere. Mr. Ransome "knows of no people in the world who can touch them for powers of academic application;"* and Mr. Hearn gives the following touching example:—

"Immediately after the frightful earthquake of 1891, the children of the ruined cities, crouching among the ashes of their homes, cold and hungry and shelterless, surrounded by horror and misery unspeakable, still continued their small studies, using tiles of their own burnt dwellings in lieu of slates, and bits of lime for chalk, even while the earth still trembled beneath them."†

This feverish anxiety to acquire knowledge, and the wonderful capacity for absorbing it, seemed to Mr. Ransome the most marked traits in the Japanese character, and in addition he takes "a more optimistic view than many with regard to their capabilities for giving practical effect to such knowledge."‡

As for imitativeness, I suppose that few would now maintain that the imitative genius of the Japanese was merely servile, it being better recognised that there may be originality even in imitation, and that, whatever mistakes may have been committed

* *Japan in Transition*, p. 79.

† In which 22,000 persons were killed or wounded, and a million left homeless.

‡ *Glimpses of Unfamiliar Japan*, p. 666.

§ *Japan in Transition*, p. xv.

in practice, the desire of Japan has always been to follow the best models available. And when the gulf between the language and mental habits of Japan and those of the West is taken into account, the remarkable success of so many Japanese students in Europe and America is strong evidence of both ability and application. "The typical Japanese student," says Professor Chamberlain, "belongs to that class of youths who are the schoolmaster's delight, quiet, intelligent, deferential, studious almost to excess, his only marked fault being a tendency common to all subordinates in Japan, a tendency to want to steer the ship himself: 'Please, sir, we don't want to read American history any more, we want to read how balloons are made.'" Yet I have remarked already that the quiet, studious manner may be deceptive; the deference not unfrequently passes into insubordination; and the following extract from a Japanese publication, referring to the school days of a distinguished young officer, is calculated to upset some preconceived ideas:—"A quiet, studious boy at a military school, always at work and carrying all before him, *could not fail to incur the envy and hatred of his idler companions*. One day they came and threatened him with all sorts of punishment if he did not give up his over-zeal in study. By way of reply H. thrashed his enemies one by one, and *from that time enjoyed the respect and confidence of his class-mates*."

508. With regard to truthfulness it may be remarked that Truthfulness the emphasis now laid upon this in the West is of comparatively modern origin, being due largely to the influence of the study of physical science, which must have accuracy, and of far-reaching commerce; and neither of these conditions has as yet prevailed to the same extent in Japan. There is no reason, however, to suppose that the students are less truthful than those of other countries. Politeness, indeed, may lead them to fall in with the views, or supposed views, of their interlocutor; but this form of insincerity, however irritating at times, can hardly be regarded as a very serious vice. There are many cases of sickness being shammed at the time of examinations; and cribbing at the latter

is not unknown. On the other hand, the comparatively informal character of most examinations removes the opportunities for the most serious frauds.

Esprit-de-corps.

509. The amount of *esprit-de-corps* in these large schools is considerable, and teachers as well as boys have to bow to the force of public opinion. Students who offend against the feeling of their class or school are ostracised. Occasionally a feud develops between different schools in the same town, but it is rare for anything of the kind to break out within a school, though it may contain representatives of various classes and many provinces. This is in refreshing contrast to an Indian college, where the different communities, or even the different sections of the same community, are in a chronic state of jealousy and backering. Public feeling favours simplicity of dress and manners, and if the son of wealthy parents turns up in silk, he is soon made to understand that at school one wears cotton. Riding to school in any form of conveyance is discouraged by the authorities; and the medical advisers of the Educational Department were once consulted as to the forbidding of the use of umbrellas in middle schools. The courtesies of ordinary life are followed here, and a couple of school boys may be seen parting in the street with polite bows and flourishes of their caps. The alumni, too, of any large institution seem to hold together well, frequently revisiting it, or else holding gatherings of their own on its anniversary days, frequently maintaining a magazine of their own, frequently also bestowing gifts or mementos on their old school. In his last work * Mr. Hearn drew an interesting contrast between the traditional plan of Japanese education and that of the West. With us the child is restrained and disciplined at the beginning, allowed more liberty later; as he grows up he is made to understand how much his future depends on his individual ability and efforts; he has the chance of becoming the friend of his teacher; and throughout, as discipline is relaxed, the pressure of competition is increased. Japanese

* *Japan*, p. 459.

education, on the other hand, aims at training the individual for co-operative action; beginning with freedom, it gradually increases restraint. The young child is allowed almost complete liberty; when he goes to school, the easy discipline that exists is chiefly exerted by the common opinion of his class, which even then is nominally governed by one or two little captains. Throughout the primary school the pressure increases, skilfully directed no doubt by the teacher who knows his business, until in the middle school class-opinion attains a force to which the teacher himself must bow. The moral code of the majority is enforced by the class captains, and fighting or bullying are as yet unknown, whilst to be ostracised by his class is regarded as a disgrace even outside the school world. Then comes the Government school preparatory to the University, "a quietly and coldly ordered world, where there is little place for the joy of youth, and small opportunity for sympathetic expansion where everybody watches everybody, and eccentricities are quickly marked and quietly suppressed." At the University, on the other hand, these restraints have recently been relaxed, and the results have not been altogether satisfactory.

510. Some references have been made already to the strikes ^{Strikes,} which are a characteristic phenomenon of Japanese schools, so much so that the word "strike" has been adopted into the Japanese language, and many writers have noted among the paradoxes of the country that, whilst elsewhere it is the master who expels a boy, here it is the boys who expel a master. They affect chiefly the middle and higher institutions, but are not unknown in girls' and other schools. That deference to the sentiment of subordinates has long been a feature of Japanese life, has been remarked by Mr. Hearn*; discontent on the part of subordinates being considered to show that the superior does not know his business, so that the head of a school may be said to hold office only on condition that a majority of his students are satisfied with him. The same writer asserts that reason is

* *Japan*, p. 435.

generally on the side of the pupils, and that as long as they believe in the capacity and justice* of the teacher they will obey him, however unsympathetic or positively disagreeable he may be. It is impossible, indeed, not to sympathise with those who may be driven to revolt by sheer zeal for learning, and impatience of incompetent teaching. But strikes arise in all sorts of ways, and some are a mere kicking against discipline which in most countries would be visited with considerable severity. One cannot help wondering whether any analogous spirit displays itself in the army, and if so how it is treated. A teacher may "drop on" two or three idle boys, whereupon perhaps they begin to pick holes in his teaching, to take advantage of any slips that he may make, and to work upon their class-mates, with the result, it may be, of a disturbance. The authorities in some places are undoubtedly afraid of the students; if there is trouble the director himself may have to retire, and may not get another place. Consequently, not only is discipline often relaxed, but numbers are promoted or graduated each year who do not deserve anything of the kind. On the other hand, the staff sometimes provoke needless friction, as in a case where a number of grown students had had a military field-day in the rain, after which they asked for a day's leave in order to dry their uniforms and clean their rifles. The leave was refused, and the men were naturally dissatisfied, though the threatened rebellion was averted by the advice of an English teacher whom they trusted. In one school visited by me the entire staff had been changed in the course of 18 months through strikes, or the unpleasantness created by them, the *modus operandi* being this: the students would write to the offending teacher recommending him to resign; if he did not, they requested the director to dismiss him; and if the director did nothing, they went on strike. In another case the school had got rid of two successive directors: the first time, though the

* The other day a middle school boy knifed a teacher and gave himself up to the police, explaining that "the teacher had behaved in a partial manner when he examined his class last month"

director went, the boys were punished for staying away from school, so that, the second time, they contented themselves with making a disturbance whenever the director ~~showed~~ his face inside the school, and at the end of the term he quietly disappeared. Both of these were middle schools, but even a normal school broke out the other day in some fashion which led to 220 students out of 240 being rusticated, a most unusual, if not unprecedented, occurrence.

511. In some of the preceding chapters a few details have been given of the daily life and expenses of students; a few more may be added here. It is stated that 10 years ago it was possible to live in a provincial city for 10 shillings a month, half going for board and half for lodging; a little later at Tokyo the same cost 14 shillings a month, but now at least 30 are required, even for a very economical life. My informant had been away from home for 10 years, attending a middle school, a commercial school, and a higher commercial school, and during that time had cost his father £250 in all. Another, in seven years spent in Tokyo, had expended £140. A third, an engineering student living in lodgings in a provincial city, spent on the average 36 shillings a month. Indian expenses, of course, vary very much, but at the Government colleges which I know an average student may expect to spend 40 shillings a month. The boarders there seem to spend more on their food than the Japanese does; on the other hand, the advanced student in Japan pays much lower tuition fees, and practically no examination fee at all. Probably most Japanese students go to their homes during the summer vacation, unless they find some of those temporary employments which are alluded to below; most also keep up communication with their relatives, writing home once or twice a week, or perhaps twice a month.

Daily life and expenditure.

512. The average Japanese student is poor, but a good deal of assistance is afforded him in one way or another, nor is he wanting in self-help. To begin with, the Emperor and Empress are understood to have assisted education liberally from their private incomes, and most persons of rank or wealth do the

Self-help.

same. The former daimyos often assist the descendants of their old retainers, in some cases gratuitously, in others by loans. Men of every profession do the same; if they can afford nothing else, they give students board and lodging in return for small services as door-keepers, messengers, or teachers for their children. This is also done by many foreigners, who also give the students facilities for picking up English; there are, of course, no caste difficulties to prevent a student boarding with any one who will take him in. By the Japanese this assistance is sometimes carried to great lengths. "A certain University professor supported and educated a large number of students by dividing among them during many years nearly the whole of his salary. He lodged, clothed, boarded, and educated them, bought their books, and paid their fees, reserving for himself only the cost of living, and reducing even that by living upon sweet potatoes.*" Sisters have adopted the profession of the *geisha* in order to help their brothers; and there are hundreds of local societies for aiding students with loans of money.† The students themselves are always willing to work for their own support. Some earn money by teaching; teaching their own countrymen, or teaching Japanese exercises and the Japanese language to foreigners. I came across men who earned 50 shillings a month in this way and thereby supported themselves at school or college. Some help in the offices of up-country hotels during the summer, when many foreigners are staying there, and interpretation is wanted. In Tokyo an employment bureau has been started to help students to get odd jobs; many take round milk in the morning, or newspapers, to private houses; some even pull jinrikishas in the evening. It has often been recorded how, after the re-opening of the country, youths of even good families were glad to do menial work in a foreigner's house, or shipped as cabin-boys on foreign vessels, if so they might learn something of foreign ways and tongues. The same spirit still exists, and students constantly apply to foreigners to

* Hearn, *Japan*, pp. 475-7.

† *Japan by the Japanese*, p. 242.

give them a chance of lodging in their houses and performing small services. Some find their way to America, and support themselves by all sorts of work while attending a college. A Japanese clergyman who had completed a college course in America wished to see England also; he crossed the Atlantic in charge of cattle. If the Indian student had the grit for such things, the inexorable rules of caste would stand in his way. But in Japan a man does not lose caste by self-help any more than in America. I heard of a middle school boy who earned a little by pulling a jinrikisha. When his school fellows learned of this, and learned, moreover, that poverty compelled him to hire the vehicle, they clubbed together and bought one which they presented to him.

"To estimate the Japanese student by his errors, his failures, his incapacity to comprehend sentiments and ideas alien to the experience of his race, is the mistake of the shallow; to judge him rightly one must have learned to know the silent moral heroism of which he is capable."

Chapter XVII.—LANGUAGES.

513. The common Indian complaint about the "neglect of the vernaculars" finds no analogy in Japan, ^{where, along with other languages, students are instructed in and through their own vernacular from one end of the course to the other.} The nature of the Japanese language exercises such a powerful influence upon the general system of instruction and its results, that it seems necessary to say a little about it. The others included in the curriculum are Chinese (written), English, French, German, and Latin, together with some studied for special purposes, such as Chinese (spoken), Korean, Russian, or Spanish. Of these, English is begun by a few in the higher primary school. In the middle school Chinese and English are compulsory, whilst a small number also learn German or French. In the higher institutions, besides further study of Chinese, English and either German or French are compulsory; some learning a little of both the latter, and a smattering of Latin as

• Hearn, *Japan*, p. 456.

well. Thus a University student may have studied Japanese, Chinese, English, German, French, and Latin in the course of his career, a very considerable achievement for a young man of 25, considering the immensity of the gulf which separates Chinese and Japanese from any European language. But some of the results of the study, and of attending polyglot lectures, are remarkable. Students' note-books, especially on scientific subjects, are filled with a jumble of Japanese, English, German, perhaps Latin; and their heads tend to be in an equally chaotic condition. A casual university man, asked if he understands English, will probably answer "Ja!" and then become speechless, the workings of his fevered brain being too much for any power of utterance; it is, at all events, impossible to predict in what tongue he will answer, or of how many languages a sentence will be composed. This naturally follows from the eclectic character of the Japanese system, coupled with the habit of learning off dictated notes, and the absence of conversational facilities; when English, French, German, and Japanese teachers, text-books, and methods are all employed simultaneously, an advanced student is obliged to acquire some knowledge of them all; but the extent of the strain is shown by the poverty of the results in the average case.

A.—Japanese.

Chinese
characters.

514. The Japanese seem to have had no written symbols until they borrowed those of China about the 5th century of our era. In Chinese each word or idea is represented by its own sign, hence called an ideograph, originally a kind of picture as in the hieroglyphs of ancient Egypt. Out of a considerable number of simple characters of this kind an endless number of combinations are created, distinguished by a multitude of minute dots and strokes, very fatiguing to both eye and memory. This system was transferred to Japan, where it underwent fresh complications. The Japanese could not reproduce all the Chinese sounds; their Chinese teachers did not all speak the same dialect; and as time went on some characters

were borrowed for their sound only, others for their meaning. Hence it has come about that a single Chinese character may have several pronunciations in Japonicised Chinese, according to the context, besides having a Japanese translation to be used instead of them on certain occasions. Nor does the language lend a learner much assistance; the knowledge of the pronunciation of one character is no clue to that of its simplest modification. For instance, a certain character is read *mizu*, water; splash a blot of ink in its north-western corner and it becomes *kori*, ice; which is much as if the addition of *n* to *ice* converted it into *water*.

575. The Chinese ideographs being found cumbersome for *Kana*, daily use, two modes of contracting them came into fashion in the 8th and 9th centuries. These are the Japanese *kana*, syllabaries in which each symbol represents a sound and not an idea. The older set, called *katakana*, or "side-letters," consist of parts of common Chinese characters; the other set, called *hiragana*, or "plain letters," were a contraction of Chinese characters into a running form. Each syllabary has 47 characters, but the second admits also of various modifications of each character. No Japanese books are written in *katakana* alone, and few in *hiragana*; most display a combination of Chinese characters and *kana*. Hence it is said to be easier for a Japanese to read Chinese writing, than for a Chinaman to read Japanese. The principal characters having the same meaning in both cases, the Japanese grasps the main ideas of the Chinese passage, whilst the Chinaman in reading Japanese is puzzled by the strange *kana* characters scattered amongst those which he recognises. The *kana* with all their complications being much simpler than the Chinese characters are all that the less educated classes, and especially women, can read; hence names of railway stations and other notices of a general character are written in *kana*, and newspapers print the *kana* pronunciation alongside of the Chinese characters. On the other hand, books intended for the educated may be printed in Chinese characters

only. *The *kana*, it may be added, has been adapted to the typewriter and also to the telegraphic system, telegrams being sent in this character with complete accuracy and extraordinary cheapness.

Difficulty of
Japanese.

516. Ordinary Japanese writing, therefore, consists of a mixture of Chinese ideographs and *kana* of one kind or the other.

"Add to this that the Chinese characters are commonly written and even printed in every sort of style, that each *hiragana* syllabic letter has several alternative forms, that there is no method of indicating capitals or punctuation, that all the words are run together on a page without any mark to show where one leaves off and another begins,—and the result is the most complicated and uncertain system of writing under which poor humanity has ever groaned. An old Jesuit missionary declares it to be evidently the invention of a conciliabule of the demons to harass the faithful."*

Further, since each character represents an idea, the number of possible characters in such a language is practically unlimited. The Chinese are said to have seventy or eighty thousand altogether, and an ordinary Chinese dictionary will give 50,000 or more. No one, of course, knows all of these; it takes a learned man to know more than ten thousand, from four to five thousand are sufficient for ordinary purposes, and common people may only know a few hundred, or may be unable to read the Chinese characters at all. But to qualify as a person of decent education some 5,000 complicated and fearful-looking characters have to be mastered by a sheer act of memory.

Written and
spoken lan-
guages.

517. Nor does the Japanese boy's task end here, for the written and spoken languages are widely divergent. Originally they were much the same, but the study of Chinese literature has largely influenced the written style; it is more archaic and Chinese than the colloquial. The two differ in both construction and vocabulary; and if a Japanese reads from the newspaper, he must render what is written into the colloquial as he goes along, or if a student takes notes of a lecture, he must turn the lecturer's colloquial into the written style. Moreover,

* Chamberlain, *Things Japanese*.

the written style itself has variations to suit letters, newspapers, essays, etc., as the case may be. Speaking generally, however, it is much more concise than the colloquial. For it is a peculiarity of Chinese that different characters often have the same sound; with the written character before you no ambiguity arises, but the sound alone is ambiguous.* Hence the necessity for periphrasis and explanation, which makes the colloquial speech much less direct than the written. Further, the feudal structure of society reflected itself in the organisation of the language, which came to abound with honorific and polite forms of expression. The net result is that the spoken language has diverged from the written almost as much as modern Italian from Latin; and that it is an exceedingly difficult language to use correctly, as difficult to acquire (it has been estimated) as at least three European languages taken together; and Professor Chamberlain considers Japanese probably the most difficult language in the world.

518. In one respect the relation between Chinese and Japanese is closely analogous to that between the classical and the modern languages of Europe; it is from the former that new words, especially scientific terms, are coined. But in the case of Japan the influence of China has been so overwhelming that the development of the original Japanese language and literature was abruptly checked, much as that of the native religion was by the introduction of Buddhism. In the last fifty years in particular the Japanese have coined innumerable words from the Chinese to express the new ideas acquired from the West, just as we have coined *telegram*, *oxygen*, and a host of others from Latin and Greek; and thus their increasing Europeanisation, instead of releasing them from their obligations to China, has in a sense enormously added to these. With the new era the question speedily arose in Japan, as it had previously arisen in

Treatment of
scientific
terms.

*A curious instance of this is found in the titles of the new peerage, the two highest of which, commonly translated *Prince* and *Count*, are both read *Ko*. There are indeed more than 50 characters pronounced *ko*.

India, how the technical and scientific terms of the West were to be dealt with. In India the problem was complicated by the diversity of vernaculars, and the English language was adopted as the medium for teaching science; in Japan, with practically only one language (for the differences of dialect are trifling), the other alternative has on the whole prevailed. Committees were appointed to draw up lists of terms in the various sciences in Japanese, English, French, and German, arranged in four sections, so that one name being given the other three could at once be found. These terms, being written in the Chinese character, are available for any other country which employs the same character. Sometimes an English word is practically adopted, as *gasu* for "gas," a character of similar sound being borrowed; sometimes the foreign word is literally translated, as in the case of "oxygen;" sometimes an ingenious rendering is provided, as in the case of "algebra," here called "substitute for numbers." All this succeeds admirably in writing; but owing to the ambiguity of the spoken word already referred to, it seems to happen frequently that the scientific lecturer has to make himself clear by repeating the foreign name along with the Japanese word. The method has the further disadvantage that the Japanese names are useless in communicating with foreigners, or in reading foreign books, so that the advanced worker must make himself acquainted with a double set of terms. And even in the case of schoolboys it seems a little odd to find them studying algebra and trigonometry, botany and zoology, without being able to recognise those well-established names. This conversion of scientific terms into Chinese has not been carried out completely; at least, in the syllabus of a technical institution I find benzene, naphthalene, phenol, and a number of others, spelt out in *kana*, with the English terms added. And in industrial and other schools of a technical character it is common to find that a little English is studied, "on account of the names of the tools." It would appear then that the attempt to provide a scientific terminology in the vernacular has not

been completely successful; for elementary work it may suffice, but the ambiguity of the language, and the need of understanding foreign text-books, compel most students to learn the foreign terms as well as their own.

519. From what has been said of the character of the Japanese language it will be apparent that the Japanese child has a formidable task before it in merely learning to read and write something of its own tongue—a task so considerable indeed that it swallows up a disproportionate part of the primary stage of instruction, whilst the hundreds of Chinese characters so laboriously acquired soon fade from the mind if not constantly reviewed. The nature of the language thus places a considerable stumbling-block in the way of education, both by the time required to master its inherent difficulties, and by the effect upon the intellect of the mere memorising of characters. The Educational Department has from time to time issued orders respecting the number of characters to be taught in the primary schools, this being now limited to 1,200, besides the two *kana* syllabaries. The difficulty here is that, if the number be cut down too much, the child will not possess enough to read anything at all. The Department also forbids the form to be taught apart from the meaning, a regulation which throws a lurid light upon past methods. It was in fact the practice in Japan, and still is in China, to teach the forms of all the characters in a Chinese classic, before attempting to teach their meaning. The Japanese have thus taken one great step forward; another remains to be taken, and that is the arrangement of characters on some rational principle for the purposes of teaching. “Even in the modern common school reader there is no arrangement of the characters in the order of their complexity. The possibility of simplifying the colossal task of memorising these uncorrelated ideographs does not seem to have occurred to the Japanese, though it is now being attempted by the foreigner.*” A foreign resident told me that he considered the

Relation of
the Chinese
character to
education.

* Gulick, *Evolution of the Japanese*, p. 78.

difficulty of learning these characters exaggerated; that he had himself learned 4,000 or more in 18 months, because he had brought reason to the aid of memory by connecting them together; and that if the primary school teachers would take the trouble to invoke the child's reason in a similar way, their task would be much simplified. I ventured to think that this gentleman was peculiarly gifted; at the same time, if it is true that the Japanese teachers still proceed by purely arbitrary and irrational methods, it is clear that a heavy responsibility rests upon them, both for the waste of time involved, and for the mechanical mind created; and it is no wonder that all through the academical course one hears complaints of the cramming habits of the Japanese student—cramming “to which no cramming in England can be compared.” As far as the mere Chinese character goes, it has been alleged that the study of it is a fine mental discipline, comparable to the Western study of Latin and Greek. But in this utilitarian and competitive age it would appear to be increasingly the case that only the comparatively leisured can spend time on the study of classics; those who have to compete early for a living cannot afford to handicap themselves. And there can be no doubt that the ideographic system exacts a disproportionate amount of time from those whose education is to be short. Moreover, can it fairly be compared to the discipline afforded by Latin and Greek? The latter is a training in the study of languages, and languages sufficiently different from the vernacular to stretch the mind, and make the careful student appreciate the genius of his own vernacular better. The copying of Chinese characters, on the other hand, may appeal to the æsthetic faculty, but as far as the intellect is concerned appears to be merely a strain on the power of observing and remembering minute differences. A better parallel to the study of our classics by us would surely be found in the study of a European language by the Japanese; and unless this is so, unless the study of English is calculated to develop the linguistic faculty and to improve the student's knowledge of his own tongue, it is difficult to defend the

practice of exacting the study of English from a multitude of boys who will never have any practical use for it.

520. It was at one time boldly proposed that the Japanese should abandon their own language and adopt English in its place. Less heroic measures were put forward by the Romanisation Society, which laboured for some years to get our system of writing substituted. About 1885 such a reform seemed quite possible, but since then a reaction has occurred, and the change now seems out of the question. It was shewn by the Society that all the sounds could be expressed by 22 Roman letters, and that a child could learn to read in one-tenth of the time otherwise required;* but they did not get over the ambiguity that would be created by the disappearance of the Chinese character, and the weight of custom and of patriotic feeling was against them. The Japanese would have cut themselves off from their past literary history, and the written character in itself is a terse and effective instrument, capable of representing the ideas of the West as well. "But a more general cause," says Professor Chamberlain, "must be sought in the fact that ideographic writing apparently possesses some inherent strength, making it tend to triumph over phonetic writing, whenever the two are brought into competition in the same area. All the countries under Chinese influence exemplify this; Egypt, too, retained its hieroglyphs to the end. In Europe such competition has scarcely taken place, except in the case of the symbols for numbers, but there too the general law has asserted itself; who would not write 365 in place of three hundred and sixty-five? Doubtless an ideographic system of writing is infinitely more cumbrous as a whole than its rival, but it is easier in each particular case. Hence its victory." It would appear at present as though the task of Japan in the immediate future would be the reorganisation of the Far East, and this can most easily be done through the medium of the written character of China; but

Proposals for
reform.

* Griffiths, *Mikado's Empire*, p. 605.

if she is to enter upon a career of world-politics and world-commerce, as seems to be her ambition, it is difficult to believe that she will for ever maintain a system of script which cuts her off from every Western nation, which none but a few specialists can attempt to learn, and which compels the humblest tourist in the country to provide himself with an interpreter.

Of late a committee under the supervision of the Educational Department has been investigating various questions connected with the Japanese language and the possibility of simplifying it. I could not learn that it had produced any positive results as yet, but it is understood to be in favour of limiting the use of Chinese ideographs, and substituting *kana* as far as possible; of simplifying the epistolary and other special styles; and of bringing the spoken and written languages into agreement. Such recommendations are indeed obvious; the difficulty is to get Japanese writers to simplify their style, to avoid Chinese words, and to develop the resources of their own language. The tendency since the introduction of Western science has been in the reverse direction—that of an immense multiplication of Chinese words. Another question submitted to the committee was the mode of transliterating foreign terms. The *kana* being a syllabary, not an alphabet, the transliteration of foreign names involves great difficulties, especially as the Japanese will not terminate a word with a consonant unless it be *n*. Hence the greatest doubt surrounds the spelling and pronunciation of names in foreign history and geography.

B.—Chinese.

The study of
Chinese.

521. From the secondary stage of education both boys and girls devote a certain amount of time to the study of "Chinese classics," *i. e.*, Chinese as a written language. In the lower grades modern books written in Chinese by Japanese authors are read; in the higher grades works of Confucius, Mencius, or other old Chinese writers are studied as well. These books are said to be useful for familiarising the pupils with Chinese char-

acters, and enabling them to understand Japanese works published in that language ; but the study appears to be in part a relic of the time when the Chinese classics were the only vehicle of instruction, and it is not surprising to find that there is a considerable movement in favour of making it a voluntary subject for students of literature. The middle-school boys, who are at the same time devoting many hours weekly to Japanese and to a European language, are thought to have enough on their hands without Chinese. It is said,* on the other hand, that the upper classes are in favour of keeping up the study of Chinese, and that it is necessary for carrying on business in China and Korea. But neither of these arguments seems to weigh much with those who are chiefly anxious to reduce the burden of Chinese ideographs, and to develop the Japanese language proper. As for the Japanese books written in Chinese, there seems to be no reason why they should not be written in Japanese, except that a certain traditional dignity clings about the Chinese. Chinese was to old Japan what Sanskrit was to the Hindu, but the introduction of Western studies swept away most of the Chinese teachers, and reduced the study to some two hours weekly, and even this seems likely to disappear before long, unless for specialists. After all, Japan need not go to China for classics ; she possesses a classical literature of her own.

These remarks apply to the study of written Chinese, in which the characters, though they may be pronounced differently, have for the most part the same value in both languages. Spoken Chinese is not taught in the ordinary schools, but only for business purposes in some commercial schools, or in the Tokyo School of Foreign Languages.

C.—English.

522. The perplexed enquirer from abroad, floundering in the bog of Chinese ideographs, is likely to clutch at anything which promises more solid footing, such as the attainments of

The study of
English.

* From a summary of the native press in the *Japan Mail*.

the students in English. But here some caution is needed. Whatever may be the defects in the teaching of English in India, it is undeniable that the results are infinitely superior to those achieved in Japan, and a visitor from British India is likely to be extremely disappointed with the average Japanese student's power of speaking or understanding that language. The comparison, however, is hardly fair, the circumstances being so different. In India a good practical knowledge of English is the avenue to lucrative employment of every kind; in Japan the business of the country, public or private, is transacted in the vernacular. The conditions of the Philippines are more analogous to those of India, and there the American teachers are said to have been very successful already in imparting a practical knowledge of their language. In Japan itself some of the best English work is to be found in the commercial schools, the students of which may be supposed to have a more direct incentive to taking pains with it. For the rest the language has only a subsidiary use, like that of French or German in England, the object being not to speak it, or even write it, but to be able to consult English text-books and works of reference. At one time, indeed, the study was much more widely enforced, with some idea apparently of making English one of the languages, perhaps even the language, of the country. But the task was found to be too great, and the burden was so far relaxed that only 7 per cent. of the higher primary schools teach it. Nevertheless, considering the amount of time devoted to the subject in the secondary and higher schools, the results are not as good as might have been expected, and all admit that the men, now middle-aged, who studied during the earlier portion of the present reign, have a better practical knowledge of English than even University graduates of the present day. The reason is said to be that in those days, though the teaching was in Japanese, the text-books were in English; and even now it is observed that the science and engineering students, who habitually use English books for mathematics and science, have a better command of that language than their companions. It has been the

policy of very eminent men in Japan to replace the foreign text-books by vernacular ones, and not unnaturally; but one result has been to cause a considerable falling off in the students' mastery of the foreign language. In addition, it is pretty generally allowed that there is something wrong with the methods of instruction followed. Some find the flaw in the dearth of foreign teachers, others in the employment of missionaries, others again in the failure to use the "synthetic" method. On one point, however, all authorities are agreed, and that is the enormous difficulty of any European language to a Japanese. "It is not simply that the idioms differ," says Mr. Knapp, "but that the Japanese mind runs in an entirely different, and generally in a reversed, groove of thought." Similarly Mr. Hearn remarks that to think like a Japanese is "to think backwards, to think upside down and inside-out, to think in directions totally foreign to Aryan habit."

'523.' But if the difficulty is so great, and the practical value Use of the study. not always very visible, it may be asked why there is so much anxiety on the part of the Japanese to learn English: so much that in middle schools alone nearly 100,000 youths are grappling with it, and that the very policemen engage lady missionaries to teach them. The answer is that at the outset the language was absolutely necessary for the study of Western sciences and arts, and continues to be so to some extent, inasmuch as the Japanese cannot render themselves completely independent of English text-books; secondly, that the learning of English has become a habit, so that many learn it who have no real use for it; and thirdly, that the recent expansion of the Japanese horizon has caused an increasing number of young men to look forward to going out of Japan, it may be to Shanghai, Hong-Kong, etc., it may be to America. There is also the educational value of the study, on which I cannot do better than quote a few lines from Mr. Gulick (*Evolution of the Japanese*, page 211):—

"In a conversation with a leading educator I was maintaining that a wide study of English was not needful for the Japanese youth; that the majority would

never learn enough to make it of practical use to them, and that it would be wiser to spend the same amount of time on more practical subjects. The reply was that the boys needed the drill in English in order to gain clear methods of thought; that the sharp distinctness of the English sentence, with its personal pronouns and tense and number, affords a mental drill which the Japanese can get in no other way; and that, even if the boys should never make the slightest after-use of English in reading or conversation, the advantage gained was well worth the time expended. I have since noticed that those men who have spent some time in the study of a foreign language speak very much more clearly in Japanese."

It may be added that the study of English is said already to have effected some modifications in the vernacular, as regards both the vocabulary and even the grammatical structure of the language.

Methods in
lower institu-
tions.

524. As already stated, the proportion of higher primary schools teaching English is small, and the work naturally does not amount to much; in any case it is begun over again at the middle school, the first year class of which probably contains boys to whom the subject is quite new. Some primary schools start it in the first or second year of their course, *i. e.*, with boys of 10 or 11, others only in the third or fourth year. I came across one foreigner engaged in teaching one of these classes; the boys were apparently revising a lesson given on what is, I believe, called the Gouin method, repeating, that is, a string of sentences such as "I walk towards the door," "I get near the door," "I take hold of the door," etc. The Gouin method is not so popular as it was, and most schools confine themselves to the regulation procedure, the alphabet, syllables, and a reader. As for the Japanese teachers, considering that those of middle schools are much criticised, it is not likely that a high standard is reached in the primary schools. Those who come from a good normal school may be fairly well up to the work; but I heard of at least one youth, a graduate of a middle school, who failed so badly in English in the first year of the Higher School that he had to leave, and yet was taken on at a primary school as a teacher of that language. The serious study of the language begins in the first year of the middle school, when boys are from 12 to 14 or older, at an age, that is, when many Indian boys are already able to follow a simple discourse in English tolerably

well, even if they have not already matriculated at a University. The 221 public middle schools employ only 21 foreign teachers between them, or about 0.5 per cent. of their total staff. Probably more would employ them if they could afford to pay the comparatively high salary demanded by a foreigner, say, £10 a month; but there are also many schools in places where it would not be worth while for a foreigner to settle, and where even a resident missionary is not available. The bulk of the English teaching is therefore in the hands of Japanese, and the usual method is described in a letter recently contributed to the *Japan Mail* by a writer who evidently knew what he was talking about:—

"English as a language is not taught at all in such schools. There is probably not a public school in Japan wherein the teachers are permitted to use the synthetic method of language teaching, and it is doubtful if many of them are competent to do thorough work in giving such instruction, *if the pupils would permit its use*. The usual process is to teach the alphabet, then a few syllables, and then to take up a reading book, the lessons being *explained* in Japanese. After this the pupils are advanced to higher reading books, the pernicious habit of *explanation* is continued, and at the end of the fifth year the pupils are graduated, rarely having had a single hour's work in practical English, certainly without having been encouraged or compelled to *think* in English. It is to be said to the credit of the Japanese teachers that many of them have discarded the bad habit of using the *kana* to teach pronunciation."

The writer states that in middle school English work he has invariably found that entire absence of agreement between subject and predicate, pronoun and antecedent, which indicates utter lack of training in the construction of sentences; and proceeds to lay much of the blame on the Inspectors of schools, who look to quantity rather than quality. "If the average school inspector were to visit a fifth form room of a prefectural middle school, and found the boys engaged in constructing sentences, building them up from the conjugations and declensions in the synthetic manner, without a reading book in their hands, it is probable there would be an uncomfortable quarter of an hour for the teacher." He then suggests, as the first step towards improvement, that the Japanese teachers should be compelled to shut up their reading books (for the most part),

and to stop their "explanations," confining themselves to grammar and the construction of sentences; "and if the pupils subsequently come into the hands of a competent foreign teacher there will be only one fault to correct, the minor one of pronunciation, instead of, as at present, faults of pronunciation, spelling, grammar, and idiom." There would, however, he adds, be fierce opposition from most of the teachers, who are wedded to their reading books and their explanations, and there would be "strikes," leaving the classrooms empty, until the pupils realised that the authorities were in earnest. The study of grammar, it appears, is not found inspiring by the Japanese youth. "Please, sir, we don't want a grammar lesson to-day, we want something interesting," is a request frequently preferred to the teacher.

Methods in
higher institu-
tions,

525. The Higher School is intended to polish the students in the idiomatic use of English, but, in practice, most of the time is spent in correcting and undoing the bad work of the middle schools. All of the higher schools are provided with foreign teachers, mostly for the "practical" work, *i. e.*, conversation and composition. Conversation is encouraged by interesting the class in some topic and getting them to ask questions. For composition, one teacher sets a subject on which each writes something; a student is then made to copy his piece on the blackboard, class and teacher criticise it together and re-write it; then another does the same, and so on for 5 or 6 hours, after which another subject is taken up. Another gives them stories to reproduce, and at times a chance of free composition; for the seniors he merely indicates the character of the mistake (grammatical, etc.) in the margin, and leaves them to find the rest out for themselves. On the whole, however, translation is preferred to free composition. But some of these teachers also read books with their classes, such books as Tom Brown and Sherlock Holmes. The polishing stage of the higher school having thus been devoted to elementary work, the university teachers naturally complain in their turn of the quality of the men sent 'up' to them. The late Mr. Hearn, when employed at the university,

used to give his class dictation, because he found them so bad at spelling; and there are probably few of the students in conversation with whom the services of an interpreter are not highly desirable. Most of the foreign teachers, it may be added, agree in deprecating the freedom of promotion and graduation, nor do they consider the Japanese always competent to examine in English, some of them being apt to pass serious faults and fall upon trifling ones, with the result that really weak candidates succeed, whilst others who can pronounce and write decently fail, because something is objected to in their translation. The Japanese, however, like to have their own way, even in dealing with a foreign language.

526. Besides the chain of institutions just dealt with there are, of course, many others in which English is taught. There are, for instance, the higher normal and higher commercial schools, the best men of which may be superior in their command of the language to the graduates of the Imperial University. There are also all the schools for girls, the standard of which is somewhat lower than that of the corresponding male schools, but which nevertheless manage to turn out (as from the higher female normal school, for instance) some fair speakers of the language. There are also private institutions of a "miscellaneous" character, which make the teaching of English their main, or only, feature. One of these quoted the following text-books on its notice-board:—Select Stories, Famous Stories, Arabian Nights, Union Readers, Character, Macaulay's Frederick, Observations on England, Swinton's English Literature, Tom Brown, Midshipman Easy, Hamlet, Pickwick, Life of Nelson, Adventures of a Bad Boy. "Conversation" was taken by a foreigner, and a good many hours seemed to be devoted to the study of Prepositions, reminding one of Mr. Hearn's story of his proposing to his class, as a subject for composition, "What is most difficult to understand?" "That," said one of them, "is not hard to answer—the correct use of English prepositions."

527. The details of text-books given in preceding chapters, and the examples of examination papers, will show that the

standard reached in reading is in general much lower than that of India, especially when we consider the greater age and wider range of work in other respects of the Japanese student. It is only in the English Literature classes of the Imperial or private universities that book of a classical character are read, or anything like the standard of Indian college work reached. In speaking and writing there is no comparison. In reading aloud the Japanese affects a sort of sing-song, without expression, and without much attention to the beginning and ending of sentences, which gives a good deal of trouble to the foreign teacher; and the pronunciation is often very bad. To correct this, some have thought that it would be really of more advantage to introduce the foreigner at the bottom of the scale, whilst the pupils were still impressionable, rather than at the top; others, that the number of lady teachers should be increased, women tending to speak more clearly and distinctly than men; others, again, as we have just seen, regard mispronunciation as a comparatively venial fault, if only others could be set right. Of all difficulties of pronunciation the letter *l* presents the greatest; for whilst a Chinaman turns *r* into *l* ("welly good"), the Japanese turns *l* into *r*, and owing to defective teaching at the outset the majority of students never surmount this difficulty. Not only cannot the Japanese pronounce the letter, but it would appear as though some of them could not even write it. Thus we find "interpreter and transrator" outside an office, "beriard" over a billiard saloon, "cold robster" on a bill of fare, and "hipporogy" amongst the branches of veterinary science. This arises, I believe, from the practice of writing the pronunciation of English words in *kana* characters, where the syllable *ru* is employed to represent *l*.

Written
work.

528. As for written work, a variety of specimens of "English as she is Japped" may be found in Prof. Chamberlain's *Things Japanese*. The present war produced a crop of lurid pictures depicting engagements by sea and land, and adorned with

English inscriptions of a marvellous type. One or two specimens were jotted down at random :—

"At second kyogyun stoppage obstruction a god of war lieutenant-colonel Hirose about three time for soldier Sugino is state to find out in the shipe of war."

"After the Japan seconds army had a bravry fight on the China Tokuiji all the Russia soldiers is picture to leave."

"Japanese troopes fall down fort of Chongju."

It was by no means a Japanese disaster which was represented in the last. Now it would probably have been perfectly easy for the publishers to get these inscriptions properly translated or corrected, but for the vanity and self-confidence of their author; and a teacher of long experience told me that though his students would acknowledge their mistakes and his corrections, they would pay no real attention to the latter, having far too much belief in themselves to go over a thing twice. At every station on a certain railway the legend "To Out" distinguishes the exit; and in the sacred grove of bamboos alluded to in the chapter on female education there are some amorous inscriptions in English, evidently the work of students, of the following type:—"Please give me very beautiful," or this, "I want have a dairest daughter to as wife." A foreign professor showed me a long composition, the wild delirium of which utterly outstripped anything I have ever seen or heard of in India; and by replying to an advertisement in a Tokyo newspaper I procured the services as translator of a Literature student of a private university, of whose work here are two or three specimens:—

"On the jan, 9 years of Maiji, there were the foundation of Peers School constituted that is imitated to which of western countries."

"His Majesty coming here and Your August gazing of sciences and the arts of pupils received the name of Gakushuin and some gold."

"Once, originals which had been sent it, it shall be never send back. But one who hope that it is wanted puting in a postage stamp."

•529• But all work is not of this type, and when a student has reason to trust his teacher he may produce something

Mr. Hearn's
examples of
composition.

interesting and original. The best examples of this have been given by Mr. Hearn in his *Glimpses of Unfamiliar Japan* and *Out of the East*. He notes a tendency to prefer big words to little ones, and long sentences to short ones, partly due to the use of unsuitable text-books, partly arising from the fact that the simplest forms of English expression are often the most obscure to a Japanese, because the most idiomatic. "The compositions," he says, "of any number of middle school students upon the same subject are certain to be very much alike in idea and sentiment. The imagination of the Japanese was made for him long centuries ago partly in China, partly in his own land..... Through all his boyhood he is taught to commit to memory the most beautiful thoughts and comparisons to be found in his ancient native literature, and artistic power in composition is chiefly shown by the correct memorising and clever combination of these old thoughts. And the students have been equally well trained to discover a moral in almost everything." Of this last here is an example from an essay on the Dragon:—

"It has the eyes of a tiger and the body of a crocodile and the claws of an eagle and two trunks like the trunk of an elephant. It has a moral We should try to be like the dragon, and find out and adopt all the good qualities of others."

But the most admirable specimen, one in which he says that not a word has been altered, is this, upon the subject, "What do men remember longest?" evidently by a higher school student:—

"What do men remember longest? I think that which they hear or see under painful circumstances. When I was only four years old, my dear, dear mother died. It was a winter's day. The wind was blowing hard in the trees and round the roof of our house. There were no leaves on the branches of the trees. Quails were whistling in the distance, making melancholy sounds. I recall something I did. As my mother was lying in bed, a little before she died, I gave her a sweet orange. She smiled and took it, and tasted it. It was the last time she smiled. From the moment when she ceased to breathe to this hour more than 16 years have elapsed. But to me the time is as a moment. Now also it is winter. The winds that blew when my mother died blow just as then: the quails utter the same cry; all things are the same. But my mother has gone away; and will never come back again."

D.—Other Languages.

530. The other languages studied may be dismissed briefly. Other languages studied.
The most important of them is German, required from most students of medicine, agriculture, forestry, science, and pedagogics, and taught in one of the middle schools and many of the higher institutions. Several German professors are employed, and the periodic structure of the language is said to suit the Japanese genius better than English does. French is of less importance, but is taught in some Catholic mission schools, and also to a slight extent in the higher schools and university. Latin is also studied a little, for its bearing upon philology, law, or science; an example of a university graduation paper in this subject has been given already.

Chapter XVIII.—EXAMINATIONS.

531. First, as of least importance for our subject, the competitive examinations for admission to the public service may be noticed. Competitive examinations for the civil service.
Vacancies in the civil service, administrative or judicial, are filled from the list of those who have passed a competitive examination, middle school graduates being excused from the lower examination, and university graduates from some of the subjects required for the higher service. The usual objections are found, that those who are best at examinations are not necessarily best for the service, and *vice versa*, but as no one has devised a better system that of competition is followed by Japan.

532. In the next place there are the entrance examinations of various schools. These may be considered an accident, due to the number of aspirants to various forms of education far outrunning the accommodation available. This necessitates in some cases considerable slaughter among the candidates, as the following figures will show :—

Schools	Applicants	Enrolled	Percentage.
Normal	33,508	10,610	31·6
Middle	53,096	31,657	59·6
Girls'	11,021	7,363	67

Schools.	Applicants.	Enrolled.	Percentage.
Higher	... 4,574	1,589	34.7
Higher normal	... 1,976	432	22
Govt. technical	... 2,883	733	25
Other technical	... 18,807	12,980	69

Each school, however, conducts its own examination, except in the case of the higher schools preparatory to the university, where the same questions are set to all the candidates. This examination, therefore, is the only one at all resembling the great entrance examinations of India, and even here the 4,500 candidates are distributed between 8 centres, so that the numbers are quite manageable. This is perhaps the most critical examination in a student's career, but the papers are of a short and simple type, and, as explained elsewhere, the examination is far from "dominating" the middle school curriculum out of which it arises. To none of these entrance examinations are there attached any prizes or scholarships.

Periodical
examinations
in schools.

533. There remain the terminal, annual, and graduation examinations which attend each course of study. These were not entirely a novel feature in Japan, for even the old *samurai* schools had their periodical examinations, in the presence of the daimyo or his officers, when the students would display their familiarity with the classical texts they had committed to memory. But with the introduction of Western arrangements the examination leaped into an importance it had never before possessed. "The spirit of rivalry," says a Japanese writer with reference to that period, "was fostered to such an extent that we felt obliged to go to the teachers in the evenings for private instruction. . . . An examination was held at the end of each month; how hard we used to work for it! It decided one's standing in class, and all through the following month he had to remain in a given seat. The night before the examination I would study and read aloud all the evening; my father would bid me not to be over-anxious and retire. The next morning he would wake me early, and light me a lamp to study by. My class was composed of about six members; we met in each

other's houses outside of school hours to go over our reviews together." The consequences of all this pressure were disastrous to many, and steps were subsequently taken to check it. At present examinations are discouraged in the primary schools, and though there are plenty of them elsewhere, it rests with the teachers to decide how much importance shall be attached to them. Some schools, for instance, practically go by the daily marks, and not by the examinations at all; others fix such a ratio between the two as to assign a preponderating value to the daily work. In no case are there any classes, honour lists, etc.; the results, in fact, are not made public in any way, and with few exceptions a student is content to know that he has passed, without troubling about his exact position on the list. It is, at least, clearly the desire of the authorities that overwhelming importance should not be attached to examinations; it rests with individual teachers to give effect to this desire.

534. About these examinations there are four features deserving of notice. First, they are extremely simple, and comparatively informal in character; secondly, in most of the higher courses a thesis is an integral part of graduation; thirdly, they are conducted by the teachers themselves, not by outsiders; and fourthly, an apparently high standard is exacted for passing, but at the same time the proportion of those who do pass is high. As to the first point, the examples given elsewhere in this report, and the rules quoted under various colleges of the Imperial University, show that the questions set are as a rule extremely few in number, often only one or two; and even when more are given, as in literature or philosophy, the number required to be answered is small. Even at the university the examiner may be content to write his questions on the board, fees from the candidates, fees to the examiners, frauds and scandals, being alike absent. These brief papers are much unlike those with which we are familiar in India; they make no pretence of covering a subject, and they appear to come straight out of the class-work. There is no attempt to disguise old questions under new forms, nor to set novel problems; the

Their simplicity.

mathematical questions, for instance, appear to be all book-work, or matter so familiar as to amount to the same. As for the graduation thesis, it sounds more formidable than it probably really is, but it affords useful experience in methods of investigation to students who are really in earnest.

No outside
examiners.

535. The examining of all work by the teacher himself instead of by an outsider is opposed to English practice, but harmonises, as I understand, with that of America, where it is held that one who is fit to teach a class is fit to examine it, and that by no other means can undue competition and the concentration of the teacher's attention on picked pupils be avoided. The teacher, it is added, who has seen the pupil's work for months is a better judge of it than an examiner who sees it on a single occasion, and under abnormal conditions. The result being decided, not merely by the examination, but by the general character of the work done throughout the period under review, it is claimed that this method ensures continuous and steady work, without either slacking or feverish bursts of cramming. It certainly makes the work of teaching much easier and pleasanter, and gives the first-rate teacher a splendid chance; he can teach just as much as he pleases of his subject, and in his own way, and has no need to work against time in order to cover a prescribed amount of ground within a limited period; and if all teachers were perfect no other method could be desired. But if we ask, whether as worked in Japan it produces the effects asserted, the absence alike of slacking and of feverish cramming, the answer can only be that in a large number of cases it does not. The proper working of the method, at any rate, postulates three things: that the teachers should be thoroughly competent, that there should be plenty of them (or else individual work cannot be supervised), and that they should be conscientious and impartial.

High pro-
portion of
passes.

536. Now there seem to be three ways of dealing with indifferent pupils. The teacher may be perpetually goading them into activity, keeping them up to the mark; or he may content himself with warning them and their parents, and then,

if there is no improvement, plough them at the end of the year or course of study ; or, while recognising their inefficiency and the failure of admonition, he may follow the line of least resistance, and pass them after all. The first may be called the English method, distasteful enough, it may be, to the teacher, yet carried out by him from a sense of duty ; the second, which at any rate avoids daily friction and throws the responsibility on the pupil himself and his parents, is said to be the American method ; the third would seem to be, in many cases at least, the Japanese method. The qualifying standards are according to Indian ideas very high, 60 or even 80 per cent., while descent below 50 in a single subject is sufficient to rule a candidate out. Yet the percentage of candidates passing is much higher than in India, as details already quoted will show. Why is this ? There is no reason to suppose that the average Japanese student is abler than the average Indian ; on the contrary, the Hindu intellect is probably the keener and subtler of the two. And there are probably, on the whole, as good teachers in India as in Japan. It may be said that the Japanese understands his subjects so much better from studying them in the vernacular that he naturally gets higher marks. It may also be said that the Indian tests are unduly stiff. There is something in both of these explanations, but I do not think that they account for the whole, for entire classes getting 80 or 90 per cent. of the marks, and graduating without a failure. There must, it would seem, be an abnormal difference in the examining ; and whilst the Indian examinations may be too difficult, all the foreign teachers seen by me, men or women, concurred in finding a preposterous leniency in those of Japan. There is in most cases a sufficiency of teachers to study the individual pupils, and probably as large a proportion of them is competent as in any other large body of teachers ; but, whether from easy nature, or from fear of provoking unpleasantness among the students, they certainly do seem to let the latter down very easily when it comes to the pinch of deciding whether a weak candidate shall pass or not. And it must be

remembered that even of those who nominally fail, some are ploughed not for the examination at all, but for extraneous reasons of a moral or disciplinary kind. At every stage one hears complaints of the inequality of classes; yet what else can be expected, when at every stage the whole (or almost the whole) body is given 80 or 90 per cent. of the marks, and pushed forward a step? The graduates, again, of certain schools are entitled to licences as teachers; if they are graduated loosely, the supply of unsatisfactory teachers (another source of complaint) is simply multiplied. These remarks, however, do not apply in the same degree to the normal schools, where candidates are carefully selected to begin with, and further weeded with some care in the first year.

Cramming.

537. At all events, the method pursued has not put an end to cramming in Japan. In old times Chinese classics were committed to memory just as Sanskrit texts were (and are) in India; the nature of the language encouraged a great development of the memory; and it is said that even recently men would conceal their dictionaries and books of reference from a survival of the old idea that a real scholar has all his knowledge in his head.* Even now it seems that much of the school work is pursued in a mechanical manner; notes are dictated and committed to memory, and the examinations being usually straight out of the class-work there is every incentive to memorise the text-books and class-notes. A story is told of a man who attended an agricultural course, took down all the lectures, and was subsequently appointed a teacher of the subject elsewhere. All went well until his notes were unluckily destroyed in a fire, and he had to return to his original college and go through the entire course again in order to replace them. In the case of an English book paraphrases of the most important passages are learned by heart and reproduced, as in India; and dipping one day into a student's note-book I came across the following note, which also strongly recalls India:—

What I have written I have written (irrevotability).

* Peery, *The Gist of Japan*, p. 71.

Something is taken down wrong ; the teacher has no means of checking the note-books, and the student does not take the trouble to do so ; and the error is transferred to the tablets of the mind, and duly reproduced on all future occasions. " There is no cramming in England," said a foreign teacher to me, " comparable to that here." The same is said of India, so that it looks as though India and Japan might be equated in this respect, if in no other. But it may be asked why, if examiners are so lenient, students should be so feverishly anxious to pass as to sit up all night cramming, and to diet themselves on milk and raw eggs as the most strengthening materials known. The answer is, partly, that after all there is always a chance of failure, and to be " degraded," *i. e.*, not promoted with the rest of your class, is reckoned a very considerable disgrace. But partly also, I think, it is the effect of a tradition, going back to the earlier times of the present system, when it was more of a novelty, when Western languages and subjects were less familiar, and examinations had a real terror for thousands of young men who were doing their best to accommodate the new wine in bottles that were very old.

Chapter XIX.—PHYSICAL TRAINING AND SCHOOL HYGIENE.

538. " The whole question of the ability of the Japanese to receive the highest form of civilisation is intimately connected with their physical constitution."* Physical constitution, in its turn, is intimately connected with the problem of diet, and " national underfeeding," wrote Mr. Hearn some years ago, " offers the most cruel problem which the educators of Japan must solve." In the earlier times it would appear that the use of flesh-food was common in Japan, but this was checked by Buddhist influence, and in the 7th century an imperial decree was issued forbidding the people to eat the flesh of cattle, horses, dogs, monkeys, or fowls.† Fish, however, has never

* Griffis, *Mikado's Empire*, p. 570.

† Hearn, *Japan*, p. 216.

ceased to be eaten by ordinary people, and eggs are also a common article of diet. It is said, too, that in old days venison and other meat were sometimes sold under the name of "mountain-whale," only the strictest Buddhists refusing to eat fish, and the whale being reckoned as such.* At the present time the staple food is rice, along with fish and eggs, and certain vegetables, especially beans and the giant radish, fresh or pickled. At one period of the new era there was a rush to eat beef and pork, but an anti-foreign reaction, combined probably with the badness of the cooking, led to a return to the older diet. Japanese of the upper classes, however, do consume a certain amount of meat, either beef or fowl, mutton being non-existent in Japan proper. Milk has never been a general article of diet, mothers being afraid that the giving of cow's milk to their children would cause horns to sprout on their foreheads; and even now it is regarded as more suitable for the weak than the healthy. The Japanese ordinarily take three meals in the day: one on rising, one at noon, and one about sunset. All school children and students, therefore, have a meal at midday, a great improvement on Indian practice, where boys seem often to pass from morning to evening without food. Tea is drunk at all hours, Japanese tea, without milk or sugar, and though weak is very refreshing. *Sake*, an alcoholic drink prepared from rice, is another universal beverage. Japanese food, as a whole (apart from beef or fowl), is found by most foreigners unsatisfying; but it is stated to be digestible, and really sufficient to support life, provided that the muscles are kept in action.†

The physique
of students,

539. The writers of 15 or 20 years ago give a gloomy account of the effects of modern education on the health of the students. For instance, Dr. Griffis:—

"Amongst those who have bowed to the harvest of death are so many promising young men as to suggest painfully the weakness of the Japanese physique. The

* Cary, *Japan*, p. 9.

† Chamberlain, *Things Japanese*.

percentage of deaths amongst the students at home and abroad is a constant source of sorrow and disappointment."*

Similarly, Mr. Hearn remarks that it is the well-fed races who have been most energetic and dominant.

"The thoughts that have shaken the world were never framed upon bread and water . . . All this the Japanese student must learn upon a diet no English boy could live on, and always thinly clad in his poor cotton dress, without even a fire in his school-room during the terrible winter..... At present under the new strain young bodies and young minds too often give way. And those who break down are not the dullards, but the pride of schools, the captains of classes."†

Even then the schools were doing what their finances permitted to make the students healthy and happy; facilities were provided for various physical exercises (but exercise without nourishing food is only an additional strain), the diet of boarders was improved, and into some schools warming apparatus was introduced. These efforts have evidently been bearing fruit, for no one could well call Japanese students a weakly or sickly class in these days; many strangers, in fact, remarked to me on their excellent physique, their good chests and backs, and Indian students have a singularly weedy appearance after the sturdy-looking youth of Japan. With the descriptions of Dr. Griffis and Mr. Hearn in my mind I repeatedly enquired for cases of breakdown that might be attributed to study, and was almost uniformly told that few or none occur. One foreigner, indeed, said that he knew of two, but it was in a period of 20 years. Nor is it complained, as in India, that many of the best graduates die prematurely. It must be remembered that a Japanese student is free from many of those domestic cares which worry our Indian students; he has not a wife, or child, or house full of female relatives on his mind while he is still at school. In the nation, as a whole, there has evidently been a considerable improvement in diet, in clothing, and in hygienic precautions, which may be expected to extend still further as modern education becomes more firmly established.

* *Mikado's Empire*, p. 600.

† *Glimpses of Unfamiliar Japan*, p. 452, etc.

The systematic physical training of the youth of both sexes is already producing visible results, and ought in a few generations to effect a marked improvement in the race. And the postponement of marriage, necessitated by advanced education and by military service, is likely to reduce the number of weakly children. For various reasons, therefore, it is anticipated that physically the Japanese are likely to improve much in the course of the next century.*

Physical
training in
schools.

540. In the schools physical training takes the form of military drill, gymnastic exercises, fencing and wrestling, outdoor sports, and long walks. Military drill was imposed in 1886, and has been cheerfully taken up by boys of all ages; every school is expected to have a compound large enough for drill, and the older boys are supplied with full-sized rifles, knapsacks, and other military equipment. Where the winter is severe, or much wet weather is expected, a covered room is provided large enough to permit of a considerable number of evolutions. Gymnastic exercises are mostly of a calisthenic kind; though bars and swings are usually provided, I saw few signs of gymnastics proper. As soon as a boy enters the middle school he is obliged to practise either fencing or wrestling (*judo*). The fencing is done with bamboos, in the style of the two-handed Japanese sword, so that it consists chiefly of heavy slashing, the head and body being protected. Kyoto is the head-quarters of the fencing association, which has branches in every part of the empire, almost in every school; and during the summer vacation many students repair to Kyoto for training by the best professionals. Wrestling proper is practically the monopoly of professional wrestlers, mountains of muscle and fat, who hold much the same position in popular esteem as a successful bull-fighter in Spain; but besides this there was cultivated in old Japan a peculiar style called *jiujitsu*, in which by balance and leverage it was sought to turn the adversary's strength and weight against himself, and in which the victory was to skill and knack,

* Hearn, *Kokoro*, p. 146.

rather than to brute force. This art, which was almost moribund 20 years ago, has been revived under the name of *judo*, chiefly through the efforts of Mr. Kano, now director of the higher normal school at Tokyo. Mr. Kano's own health having greatly profited thereby, he began to take in boarders in order to train them; but as long as pro-foreign sentiment was at its height *judo* remained unpopular. Now, however, he has more than 7,000 enrolled disciples, including many famous men; and his most energetic pupils attend the school from 4 to 7 a. m. during the thirty days of the "period of greatest cold," pledging themselves to be never absent and never late. *Judo* is not so rough as the old *jiujitsu*, and is considered to have a civilising effect on manners, the instructor emphasizing endurance, courage, magnanimity, forbearance, perseverance, dogged refusal to accept defeat, prudence, and temperance: to the eye of the outsider it consists mainly of a series of incessant and violent falls on a matted floor. It has two sides, the serious side by which one may cripple or kill the adversary, and which is only taught to approved pupils; and a series of "forms" or tricks, sufficient for ordinary purposes and not calculated to do any injury. The best teachers are obtained from Mr. Kano's school, the expenses of which are borne by himself. At a middle school which I visited I found about 40 boys practising *judo* in a closed room in the month of May; the exercise is violent, the results are the usual ones and the atmosphere which gushed out of that room, when the door was opened for me to peep in, nearly made me ill on the spot.

541. No amount of enforced exercises, especially under cover, in an atmosphere that may be positively poisonous, are likely to equal in value games played in the open. Japan seems to have few of her own, but various foreign sports have been introduced, and are encouraged in the schools, though not made compulsory. Tennis is one of the most popular of these, and is found in the girls' schools also; but the courts are generally rough, and three or four may be seen playing on one side. The students cannot, as a rule, afford the best materials, but some of

Outdoor
sports.

them play a good game, especially in the higher institutions. Base-ball is another very popular amusement, and Tokyo students have defeated foreign teams. Cricket has never secured any footing. There seem to be no indigenous games to be placed on a level with these, but primary school children have some small amusements of their own, besides the more formal exercises. The teachers here seem ingenious in devising games for them, the class being often divided into two sections which have to compete against each other in some way; in running one by one to a given point and back, in throwing scattered balls into a basket on a pole, in wrestling against each other, and so on, with endless modifications. Athletic sports are held once or twice a year, two or more schools sometimes combining for this purpose; inter-school competitions of other kinds (such as regattas) take place occasionally. Mr. Hearn mentions a case in 1890 when nearly 6,000 boys and girls from the schools in a certain prefecture assembled for sports and dumb-bell exercises, but I could not hear of any recent gathering on so large a scale. Girls' schools also have periodical sports.

Long walks.

542. Long walks are quite a feature of the physical training in Japanese schools; beginning with a mile's excursion for the smallest children, they may extend over a number of days in the case of more advanced institutions. After such a walk a rest of one or two days becomes necessary, and altogether the time consumed must sometimes be considerable. A party of 50 middle-school boys was encountered, who had walked through the hills 105 miles in 4 days; ten of their companions came round by steamer to join them, after which all were to rest for a day, and then return by sea. Another party was on a three days' excursion by sea and land, which was to cost each of them something over 6 shillings. To tell the truth, all but the ardent educational enquirer would do well to keep out of the way of these wandering bands, who crowd the inns, and are apt to be somewhat uproarious. Sometimes, perhaps, the excursions are attended by more zeal than discretion. At ten o'clock one night, in a room of a sea-port inn, a teacher was haranguing 60

small boys from a primary school. They were on a walking tour, had come 50 miles from home, and were so tired that they had failed to catch the steamer for which they were making. Yet he had them all up at that hour to listen to a moral lecture. Some had discreetly ensconced themselves behind a screen, where they lay at full length on the floor, others were nodding their little heads off; but the teacher went on and on, till nearly half-past ten, when there was a rush to their sleeping-places. Apart from this, the boys had come 50 miles by a pretty road; they had seen a castle-town with a well-preserved daimyo's castle, and had enjoyed sulphur baths at one of Japan's most famous spas, where, too, were to be seen many of her wounded heroes, and a crowd of Russian prisoners; and they were to return home through a beautiful part of the Inland Sea. Others of these excursions are turned to account for military or scientific purposes; and students often avail themselves of the summer vacation to visit famous places, to climb mountains, etc., as well as to practise fencing and *judo*.

543. Every school from the secondary stage upwards has an Students' Associations. association corresponding to the Indian *gyakhana*. The following are some extracts from the rules of one of these associations, which were translated for me:—

1. The association consists of regular members, special members, members granting aid, and honorary members. The students of the school are obliged to be regular members; the faculty of the school are special members; the graduates are members granting aid, and distinguished persons connected with the school may be honorary members.

2. The regular members pay 2 shillings as entrance fee, and 4 shillings a year subscription; special members pay 1/150 of their monthly salary; and the others pay nothing.

3. The association has five departments: military arts (boxing and fencing); athletics; aquatic sports; lectures; magazine.

4. The officials are the following: the president (the director of the school); vice-president; not more than 10 members of conference; 6 managers; 13 directors; a committee in each class; a treasurer; and a clerk.

5. The Vice-president is appointed by the president from among the special members. Members of conference are nominated by the president from among the graduates who have done good service to our association, and are entitled to speak at various conferences. Managers are elected by the committee, 3 from the third-

year class, 2 from the second-year class, and 1 from the first-year class. The directors are nominated by the managers to conduct the business of the various departments. A committee is elected from each class. The treasurer and clerk are selected by the president from the treasurers and clerks of the school. The officers, except the president, vice-president, treasurer and clerk, serve for one year.

6. The annual budget is prepared by the 5th of May by the directors of the departments, and examined at a conference of managers and directors by the 10th; it is passed by the president and committee by the 15th.

School
hygiene

544. In 1894 the Educational Department took up the subject of school hygiene, pointing out that in old times archery, fencing, spear exercises, horsemanship, etc., were constantly practised, but that they had fallen into disuse through the revolution in the art of war, and that both teachers and pupils were too apt to devote themselves entirely to the cultivation of the intellect. And of course there was little appreciation of modern hygiene among the people at large. The following instructions were therefore issued for primary schools :—

(1) Gymnastic instructors were to avoid mere routine and the mechanical arrangement of pupils in rows, etc. Instead, they should make the exercises interesting, and at the same time calculated to exercise all the muscles and to promote the circulation.

(2) Military songs were to be introduced to make the exercises more interesting.

(3) Suitable dress was to be worn.

(4) Pupils should not be allowed to spend their recreation time in inactivity or idle conversation, but should be encouraged to run about in the open air, to shout and play games in as free and unrestrained a manner as possible.

(5) Tasks demanding the taking of notes and all mere memorising lessons should be avoided as much as possible.

(6) Composition, being the most difficult subject, should not be imposed on the youngest children, nor made a subject of examination.

(7) "Examination in primary schools is now generally tending to a system of rewards and punishments, as shown by changing the seats, or giving rewards according to the number of marks obtained, thus subjecting them to undue mental excitement. Hereafter the seats should not be changed according to the results of each examination."

(8) Children in primary schools should be forbidden to smoke or to keep tobacco pipes.

(9) "Luxury and ease tend to imbecility." Directors and teachers should induce children to walk to school as much as possible, and not ride in carriages.

The precautions taken by the teachers of one town for the health of their children during the summer vacation have been referred to elsewhere. At one time the Educational Department had a board of medical advisers, who used to be consulted on a variety of topics, such as the measurements of desks and benches, the size of type in school books, the distance children might be expected to walk, the diet in boarding-houses, etc.

545. For some years efforts have been made to provide School public, as well as Government, schools with doctors responsible for the sanitary state of the school and the general well-being of the pupils, as also for the periodical inspection of their physique. In 1902 the following public schools were provided with doctors:—primary, 8,601; normal, 57; middle, 221; girls', 72; technical, 204; others, 11: total, 9,166, out of 28,400, the deficiency being almost entirely in primary schools. The actual number of doctors was 4,582, and their total annual allowance £13,955, or an average of a little over £3 apiece. Medical examinations of the pupils have hitherto been carried out twice a year, but are in future, I believe, to be annual only. In a recent year in Government schools 10,917 males and 722 females were examined; of the males 47 per cent. were classed as "strong" and 48 as "medium," the percentages for the females being 76 and 23 respectively. As regards eyesight, 63 per cent. of the males and 85 per cent. of the females were found normal in both eyes. The progressive deterioration of the eyesight is shown by some figures in the Minister's report for 1901, where those possessed of normal sight in both eyes are given as 88 per cent. in the middle schools, 58 in the higher schools, and 51 in the Imperial University. The corresponding percentages for strong constitutions were 48·0, 48·5 and 31·3. In public and private schools 524,524 boys and 305,603 girls were examined, some of the percentages being as follows:—*Strong constitutions*—primary, boys 30, girls 27; secondary, boys 48, girls 39;

normal, boys 63, girls 60. *Eyesight*—normal in both eyes. Primary, not examined; secondary, boys 88, girls 89; normal, boys 86, girls 91.

Chapter XX.—RELIGIOUS AND MORAL TRAINING.

Shinto.

546. The indigenous religion of Japan, known as *Shinto*, or "the way of the gods," was a compound of nature-worship and ancestor-worship. In one form or the other it served to develop in the Japanese an intense love of their own land, an intense reverence for all the "upper ones" (*kami*), whether living or dead. Moreover, it made strongly for unity, being singularly devoid of all those elements which in other religions have become bones of contention; it had neither dogmas nor moral codes, neither images nor sacred books, neither heaven nor hell. The lack of scriptures, of visible objects of worship, of a gorgeous ritual, was supplied by Buddhism, that of a moral code by Confucianism; and elements derived from all three composed *Bushido*, that morality which was the true religion of the upper classes of feudal Japan. At the present time, so far as the lower classes are concerned, popular religion stands much where it does in other countries, allowance being made for a certain appearance of levity which attaches to Japanese worship, and for a total inability to separate what seem to the scholar or the foreigner to be distinct faiths. Many of the temples, Shinto or Buddhist, are thronged; pilgrims are reckoned by the hundred thousand; prayers and offerings are made, myriads of charms and amulets are sold; women may be seen "poured in prayer" before the goddess of mercy; rheumatic cripples and overworked schoolboys rub their aching members in the presence of the god Binzuru; and the votive offerings on behalf of dead children are inexpressibly touching. With the educated, however, it is different. Educated men do not believe in deities of the sun and moon, in the magic of foxes, in the healing powers of wooden saints and bronze horses. For them the old theology has become discredited, the old worship is mere formalism; yet the old spirit lives, the spirit

of cheerful self-sacrifice for parent, or ruler, or country. The religious feeling, as we think of it, seems to have been transmuted into a moral or social feeling of such intensity that it has been called fanaticism. "Their real religious faith is summed up in the idea of loyalty to their land; their genuine religious enthusiasm is evoked by naught save its welfare and its glory; their highest conception of religious duty is that of dying for the Emperor."* It has been the Shinto belief in the divine descent and divine right of the Emperor that in our own time has unified the nation, has enabled it to accept the new social order so readily, and has filled it with that frenzy of patriotic self-devotion which both sea and land have witnessed. "But the reality of Shinto," says Mr. Hearn, "lives not in books, nor in rites, nor in commandments, but in the national heart, of which it is the highest emotional expression, immortal and ever young, the Soul of Japan."†

547. • Buddhism became, so far as the popular faith is concerned, inextricably mixed with Shinto in the 6th and following centuries, and though officially disestablished and disendowed after the Restoration of 1868, it still retains great influence. Efforts have been made to elevate the intellectual and moral tone of the clergy, and Buddhism has profited by the rivalry of Christianity. The Buddhists have established schools and colleges where Western knowledge is taught along with the tenets of their faith; they have organised summer institutes for the study of their philosophy and theology; they publish special magazines; and they have instituted orphanages, temperance societies, and a Young Men's Buddhist Association. In 1901 the number of Buddhist temples was returned as 110,000, as against 195,000 Shinto shrines, and 1,055 Christian churches and chapels. Confucianism, on the other hand, has died out as a form of religion, leaving behind it among the educated class a strongly agnostic tendency, which has been

* Knapp, *Feudal and Modern Japan*, i. 210.

† *Glimpses of Unfamiliar Japan*, pp. 209, 389.

reinforced by Western influence, so that that class has become supremely indifferent to religious forms and supernatural dogmas. In this connection the following figures, taken from Cary's *Japan* (page 122), may be of interest. A Buddhist magazine took a religious census of the students of three institutions, the average age ranging from 19 to 23. Answers were given by 407 as follows:—Confucian 1, Shinto 1, Buddhists 15, Christians 4, atheists 60, agnostics 282, non-committal 46. And Mr. Hearn notes that the outward forms affected his students very little. They were not interested in religious folklore, or in the comparative study of religions, as a foreigner might be; in fact, they were rather ashamed of the traditional symbols of popular faith. On the other hand, of rude and aggressive scepticism there was little, unless amongst the university students of Tokyo.

"To be moral, honest, and upright; to be guided by reason and not by passion; to be faithful to friends and benefactors; to abstain from meanness and selfishness in all its forms; to be prepared to sacrifice everything to country and king—that is the ideal of the cultured mind, and in the pursuit of it no priestly guidance is considered necessary."*

Attitude of
leaders to
religion.

548. The attitude of Japanese leaders towards religious forms may be gathered from one or two examples. The greatest teacher of modern Japan, Mr. Fukuzawa, whilst not believing in any religion himself, emphasized its importance for his fellow-countrymen, recognising that it was "one of the things men need in order to get through life," that it subserved a social end in fact, "like tea." "You choose the tea whose flavour you like best, and you buy from the tea merchant who sells it."† The Marquis Ito has delivered himself on the subject several times, *e. g.*, "I regard religion itself as quite unnecessary for a nation's life; science is far above superstition, and what is religion but superstition, and therefore a possible source of weakness to a nation?"‡

* Brinkley, *Japan*, v. 159.

† Quoted by Watson, *Japan, Aspects and Destinies*, p. 259.

‡ Gulick, *Evolution of the Japanese*, p. 288.

And again—

"It would be the height of folly for educationists to invoke the aid of religion The modern progress of Japan is due partly to the fact that all religious entanglements have been wisely avoided in the domains of education and politics. Look at those Oriental countries which are still in a state of religious bondage. Do we not observe in them that religious prejudice still constitutes a fatal barrier to the introduction of an intelligent system of administration? . . . In the view of the ruling classes religion is a secondary affair. The important thing is to conserve the national morality, which inculcates love of country, loyalty to the sovereign, filial piety, family harmony, respect for parents, etc. These are civic and family observances, not religious. This moral system limits its aims to this world, and its practice contemplates no celestial reward."*

To the present writer another famous statesman remarked that the progress of India was bound to be considerably slower than that of Japan, because she was still hampered by superstition and the "disease of religion."

549. Sharing these last views rather than those of Mr. Fukuzawa, and regarding religion as mere superstition, obstructive of progress, the educational authorities have naturally prohibited religious teaching in their schools. They went further, and in 1899 prohibited it in "all schools whose *curricula* are regulated by provisions of law," thus dealing a direct blow at the mission schools. The history of the controversy which followed has been given in another chapter; in the end the authorities let it be understood that, whilst reserving the right to object to religious teaching, they did not propose to exercise it in the case of schools that were well conducted. Some have supposed that the Japanese still remember the interference of the 16th century missionaries in politics, and have no desire to see the religious element acquire too much strength, for which reason they keep a sword hanging over the mission schools. However that may be, at the present time the missionaries are accorded the greatest freedom.

550. It was a further ground of complaint with the missionaries that, whilst forbidding religious instruction in any school, the Government was itself endeavouring to force a new religion Apotheosis of the Emperor.

* Quoted by Mr. Watson, p. 260.

upon all, in the apotheosis of the Emperor. The need felt of a definite basis for moral teaching led to the publication of the Imperial Rescript on Morals in 1890; and, apparently, the further need of obtaining a religious sanction for this moral law led to the ceremonial honouring of the Rescript together with the Emperor's picture in all schools. On certain days, especially the Emperor's birthday, the Rescript is read and all bow before the picture. On the one hand, it is said that no one would refuse to bow to the Emperor in person, and therefore there can be no harm in saluting his portrait; on the other hand that in the present state of Japanese feeling such a ceremony is with the majority a genuine act of worship, and that the Government itself recognises this in permitting foreign teachers to absent themselves from the rite. A description of the ceremony on the occasion of its first introduction is given by Mr. Hearn (*Glimpses of Unfamiliar Japan*, pp. 449-451). The attitude of the Japanese towards the imperial portrait is indeed somewhat difficult for outsiders to understand. On one occasion, when a tidal wave swept part of the coast, a man allowed his wife and children to perish in order that he might save the Emperor's picture, and he was applauded for it.* On another, a fine new school was burnt through the fault of a "drunken teacher of morals," the library, laboratories, and scientific apparatus being destroyed, and the loss in buildings alone amounting to £4,000; yet the students were sobbing over the loss of the Emperor's photograph, which could be replaced for a few shillings.† Only the other day, when a large cruiser was sunk off Port Arthur with great loss of life, the Japanese newspapers recorded with satisfaction that the captain had secured the safety of the imperial portrait, though at the cost of his own life.

Morality in
old Japan.

551. Shinto, as already noted, was devoid of a moral code. Morals, it is said, were invented by the Chinese, because they were an immoral race; but there was no necessity for them in

* Peery, *The Gist of Japan*, p. 112.

† Scherer, *Japan Today*, p. 193.

Japan, where every man acted rightly as long as he consulted his own heart and obeyed the Emperor. Subsequent intercourse with the Chinese and other foreigners unhappily rendered moral rules advisable even for the Japanese, and conformity to custom gave place to the definite moral teaching of Confucius. The basis of this was essentially communal, duty to the family and duty to the State taking precedence of all else, whilst the cardinal virtues were filial piety and loyalty. "Thy father and thy mother," said the Chinese sage, "are like Heaven and earth; thy teacher and thy lord are like the sun and the moon." As for the source and sanction of this moral law few questions were asked; it was the habit of China and Japan to accept things on the authority of the teacher, and to question them would be the beginning of disloyalty and disrespect. The iron discipline of the Tokugawa *régime* followed, with moral effects that were excellent. "It compelled each generation to practise the frugality of the forefathers . . . it cultivated sobriety, simplicity, economy; it enforced cleanliness, courtesy, and hardihood."*

552. In China filial piety stands at the head of the virtues, loyalty coming next; in Japan the positions are reversed. The divine descent of the imperial family always added a tinge of religion to the feeling with which they were regarded; but loyalty was primarily due to the feudal superior, and patriotism was limited to the province. The recent unification of the country under the Emperor has modified the meaning of both, and lent them an intensity of which the effects are sometimes astonishing, sometimes ridiculous. Mr. Hearn has recorded that the majority of his students, boys of from 14 to 16, when asked for their dearest wish, answered "to die for His Majesty the Emperor," and well many of them have kept their word. On the other hand, a foreign teacher once provoked an *émeute* in his class by referring to the Empress as "she," a mere pronoun apparently being thought wanting in respect. And some years

Loyalty and
patriotism.

* Hearn, *Japan*, p. 198.

ago a provincial teacher, who urged in a public address that the school should represent the principles of *universal* brotherhood and goodwill, was ordered by the local governor to be dismissed on the representation of the patriots of the neighbourhood.* This, again, is an extract from the programme of a teachers' convention: "The sole aim of education is 'to establish a foundation for the social system by means of the development of the abundance of our national wealth, and the expansion of the national power abroad,'† and amongst the topics to be discussed were, "What shall we do to inculcate the spirit of glory in war among the young of the nation?" and "Shall real guns be used in school military actions, or wooden ones?" This spirit may be only a temporary phase, parallel to one which followed the feudal period in Europe, and destined like that to lose some of its intensity in the future, but whilst it lasts the sentiment of loyalty does much, amongst other things, to protect the government from being cheated over contracts or through official peculation.

Filial piety. 553. Next to loyalty comes filial piety, or rather duty to one's family, for it may be considered to include the obedience of wife to husband, of sister to brother, even of father to son if the former has retired from the headship of the family. Such obedience practically made up the moral teaching given to girls, and it, too, has been carried to great lengths.

Manners. 554. Propriety of behaviour is reckoned one of the leading virtues in Japan, and the politeness of her people is well known. During the feudal age the minutest details of expression and conduct were regulated, and as the penalty for carelessness or neglect might easily be the loss of life the people naturally grew into an elaborate code of etiquette. How far this is external and formal only is another matter. It is generally agreed that the lower classes, at any rate, are genuinely courteous and kind-hearted; but any one who has jostled with a Japanese

* Gulick, *Evolution of the Japanese*, p. 50.

† Curtis, *Yankees of the East*, p. 611.

crowd at a railway station, or been kept awake for hours at night by the noisy conversation of some guest at an inn, perfectly aware that every sound must penetrate from one end of the place to the other, may be excused for doubting whether the Japanese have really so much consideration for others as might appear from some of their manners. It is often complained that in dealing with a foreigner, or with foreign innovations, the Japanese seem to lose all their manners and sense of fitness. Mr. Ransome remarks* that they fall into the error of supposing that, because we are less ceremonious in our manner, they should in dealing with us divest themselves of all ceremony or courtesy whatever. Analogous complaints are made in India about the decay of manners in the new generation of the educated class. The explanation may be similar in both cases.

"In all usual relations the average man knows how to express perfect courtesy. But in certain situations, as in foreign houses and the rail-road car, where there are no precedents to follow or rules to obey, all evidence of politeness takes its flight. The old rules do not fit the new conditions, and the people are not able to formulate new rules. To the Westerner these seem to follow from the simplest principles of commonsense and kindness, . . . but the people have not been taught these underlying principles."†

No doubt the people will adapt themselves in the end, and in many schools, at any rate, special instructions are given to the pupils as regards their dealings with strangers.

555. In his *Japan Today* (p. 45) Dr. Scherer relates that, to discover the moral ideals of his class, he gave them as a subject for composition "The noblest thing I ever heard of." Most of them quoted the suicide of Admiral Ting, after surrendering his fleet to the Japanese, to save the Chinese Emperor the disgrace of having one of his highest officials captured by the enemy. But one of them recounted a different story. The aged mother of a peasant was losing her sight, and he consulted an oracle, which recommended him to feed her with a human liver, possibly desiring to save its own reputation in a hopeless case by pre-

* *Japan in Transition*, p. 18.

† Gulick, *Evolution of the Japanese*, p. 183.

scribing an impossible remedy. The peasant, however, took it in good faith and led his child out into the garden in order to kill it. His wife found out what he was about, followed him, and pleaded for the child; finally she offered herself, and he killed her. This, then, seemed to one student the noblest thing he had ever heard of; not, be it noted, the self-sacrifice of the mother, but the act of the husband and father. This anecdote, of course, exemplifies filial piety, as Ting's suicide exemplifies loyalty. Eagerly as the Japanese have followed after the material advantages of the West, they have by no means extended the same welcome to our moral ideals; in fact it is often said that the idea of making Christianity the State religion was deliberately rejected by the government, because its moral results in the West were ascertained to be distinctly inferior to those already achieved in Japan.

Moral influence of the West.

556. There are, perhaps, three points in which the moral ideas of the West have produced a visible effect. One is the complete suppression of the evidences of phallic worship, which at one time were common everywhere; and herein Japan affords a remarkable contrast to India, where obscenity when connected with religion is expressly protected by law. The other two points are humanity in warfare, and the question of suicide. The former hardly needs to be enlarged on; all are familiar with the generous manner in which the Japanese have treated their wounded enemies and prisoners in the present war, whereas the practices of feudal days were very different. The practice of suicide, again, was exceedingly common in old Japan, where it was the recognised manner of getting out of a difficult position, as well as the ordinary judicial sentence in the case of the *samurai*. Even now six or seven thousand suicides takes place annually in Japan, often for trivial reasons. Early in the new era Mr. Fukuzawa excited the indignation of the *samurai* by condemning the practice on the ground that it lacked the elements of true courage, and by supporting the European view of it; but in the end public opinion to a great extent came over to his side, and of course suicide has no longer any judi-

cial sanction. Nevertheless, the present war has shown that the conversion of opinion is far from complete. The suicide of many hundreds of defenceless men on board the transports sunk by the Russian cruisers, in preference to surrendering themselves, awakened the liveliest approval in Japan; and those who ventured to criticise it found themselves involved in an animated discussion which still continues in public addresses and in the press. In other respects it seems at present as though the influence of the West might produce moral deterioration rather than improvement. For the West has introduced ideas of individualism and of industrial competition, it has intensified the struggle for existence, and it has undermined the old foundation of morality, with the result that courtesy and unselfishness have diminished, whilst serious crime has greatly increased.

557. The new era destroyed such religious basis as there was for moral teaching, leaving only the philosophy of Confucius; his ^{The basis of moral teaching.} Analects were accordingly employed as an ethical text-book in the schools, his authority was made the moral standard. But, whatever the Japanese students may have said, some of them probably felt in their hearts that Confucius was now a little old-fashioned, that the days for simple appeal to authority were passing away, and that something rather more up-to-date was desirable. The missionaries have tried the basis of supernaturalism, but this is of no use for those who reject the supernatural, and the tendency of Japanese thought is decidedly against it. The difficulty is frankly admitted by the leaders. Thus Count Okuma writes:—"A great difficulty in Japanese education is the lack of a moral standard. . . . Some desire a return to old forms, with patriotism added, others prefer Christianity, some lean on Kant, others on other philosophers. Everything is confused. If a great man and leader of men were to arise, the way of decision would be more easy." And Professor Nitobe admits that the sense of honour derived from the past alone binds the Japanese to the moral world, any other moral power being either in its infancy or already senile. Buddhism, Confucianism, Christianity,

hedonism, utilitarianism, materialism, reactionism, all are mainly confined to lecture-rooms and loud talkers. "The heart of the nation is still swayed by *Bushido*."^{*} In this difficulty recourse was had to the Emperor, and an imperial rescript on morals in education was issued in 1890, which is supposed to contain the essence of both Shinto and Confucianism, and on which all moral teaching in schools, public or private, is based. In Japan, as in Rome, the apotheosis of the Emperor has secured unity for the State, and authority for the law, political or moral; but how long it will continue to do so is another matter. Already, it is said, the teachers are finding it difficult to base morality exclusively on the imperial edict, and the democratic trend of politics will make it increasingly difficult to leave all political authority to the head of the state.† At present Japanese morality is based on an appeal to feeling, to the sentiments of loyalty and filial obedience; Japanese themselves have urged that more attention should be paid to the development of the intellect and will.‡ And, however earnest the authorities may be in the matter of teaching morals in the schools, the students can hardly be expected to take it very seriously as long as eminent men, nay teachers themselves, are examples of immorality. "The actual result of the present policy," remarks a Japanese quoted by Mr. Dyer, "seems to be that the gain in the form of freedom from bigotry or superstition is counterbalanced by a lack of ethical ideals and intellectual depth among the educated people."[§]

Imperial
rescript on
morals.

558. "The following is a translation of the famous rescript on morals,[§] which, it will be seen, enunciates the "five relations" of Confucius. Every year it is read in the schools, the pupils listening with bowed heads; and those who acknowledge any other standard of morality as of equal authority lay themselves open to a charge of disloyalty:—

* *Japan by the Japanese*, pp. 226, 279.

† Gulick, *Evolution of the Japanese*, p. 152.

‡ Watson, *Japan, Aspects and Destinies*, p. 13.

§ *Dai Nippon*, p. 104.

"The Founder of our Empire and the Ancestors of our Imperial House placed the foundations of the country on a grand and everlasting basis, and established their authority on the principles of profound humanity and benevolence.

"That our subjects have throughout the ages deserved well of the State by their loyalty and piety, and by their harmonious co-operation, is in accordance with the essential character of our country; and on these very same principles our education has been founded.

"You, therefore, our subjects, be filial to your parents; be affectionate to your brothers; be harmonious as husbands and wives, and faithful to your friends; conduct yourselves with propriety and carefulness, extend generosity and benevolence towards your neighbours; attend to your studies and practise your respective callings; cultivate your intellects and elevate your morals; advance public benefits and promote the social welfare; ever render strict obedience to the constitution and to all the laws of the land; display your personal courage and public spirit for the sake of the country whenever required; and thus support the Imperial prerogative which is coeval with the Heavens and the Earth.

"Such behaviour on your part will not only strengthen the character of our good and loyal subjects, but will also conduce to the maintenance of the fame of your worthy ancestors.

"This is the instruction bequeathed by our Ancestors, and to be followed by our subjects; for it is the truth which has guided and still guides them in their own affairs, and in their dealings towards aliens.

"We trust therefore that we and our subjects shall regard these sacred precepts with one and the same heart in order to attain the same ends."

559. For the schools at first the moral writings of the Chinese sages were employed as text-books; then books were compiled on more modern lines, introducing some of the ideas of the West as well. In 1893 some instructions on the subject were issued, comparing the moral lessons to the nerves pervading the whole body. The ages and sexes, the differences between cities and rural districts, the different degrees of social development, the various standards of living, are all to be taken into account, and a careful observation made of the special traits of character in each pupil. The teachers are warned that the effect of moral instruction chiefly depends on them, and that no satisfactory results can be expected merely from a school-book and a few hours' reading; the books in fact may be superseded by oral lessons by permission of the school committee. It is pointed out further that the examples of noble conduct, ancient or modern, as given in the books, almost all show extreme tenden-

Instructions
for moral
training.

cies, or else were expedients to meet some extraordinary occasion, and that the teacher should be careful to keep within normal limits. Ceremonial occasions should be utilised to foster loyalty and patriotism, but not repeated so often as to produce a habit of negligence. The custom of marching children off to welcome or bid farewell to officials and distinguished persons is discouraged, except in the cases of the imperial family and their own teachers; and the authorities are directed to watch carefully over excursions and exercises, which "are liable to cause useless expenditure for the mere show of banners and caps, and particularly by the emulation in elegant dresses among the female pupils, thus leading to much vanity."

Moral text-books. Ordinary primary course.

560. After the text-book scandals of 1903 the Department resolved to have its own books, and for the primary schools a set of seven has been introduced, there being none for the first year. The subjects of the various lessons were translated for me. The three books for the ordinary primary course contain numerous rough illustrations.

Second year.—Lesson 1. Parents and children 2. Mother. 3. Father (a picture of an orphan, with the moral that you should be grateful for having a father). 4. Yourself (the good child goes to school obediently, takes care of his pen and paper, etc.). 5. Teacher. 6. The old. 7. Brothers. 8. Food (a picture of his mother warning him against unripe plums). 9. Neatness. 10. Honesty (picture of a shop-boy pointing out defects in the cloth he is selling). 11. Punctuality. 12. Against using bad language. 13. Promises (picture of a boy returning a borrowed book in the middle of a storm). 14. Excuse the mistakes of others (*e. g.*, the losing of your ball). 15. Bad persuasion. 16. Friends. 17. Against roughness (picture of a boy who throws his lunch down and breaks the dish). 18. Carelessness (he kicks the kettle over). 19. Things picked up should be returned to the owner. 20. Animals (picture of boys teasing a dog). 21. The Flag of the Rising Sun. 22. Rules (the good boy draws his companion's notice to a warning against trespassing). 23. The Emperor (picture of a review). 24. Courage (a line of soldiers advancing, the bugler, though wounded, blowing his bugle). 25. Courage (small vessels attacking a fortress, search-lights, etc.). 26. Don't trouble others (*e. g.*, by throwing rubbish into the road). 27. The good child (picture of boys and girls receiving presents from their parents).

Third year.—1. The Empress (visiting a hospital). 2. Loyalty (loyal troops fighting in the Satsuma war of 1887). 3. Ancestors (a *shogun* visiting the tombs of his ancestors in a storm). 4. Filial piety (helping his parents by cutting wood). 5. Diligence (a boy, too weak to dig, makes sandals). 6. Diligence in study

7. Self-help. 8. Patience (example of Nelson). 9. Courage (a timid emperor habituates himself to thunder-storms). 10. Against over-haste. 11. Patience under calamities (these two illustrated by a legendary hero). 12. Honesty (George Washington and his father). 13. Against doing anything which will put you to shame (a girl ashamed of having bought cakes against her mother's orders). 14. Against pride (a wrestling scene). 15. Magnanimity. 16. Health. 17. Frugality (the trouble of making paper is described, and the moral drawn not to waste it). 18. Charity (giving clothes to a poor child). 19. Kindness to servants (he avoids sending his servant out on a cold night). 20. Gratitude (a grateful servant rescuing his master from exile). 21. Friendship (he shelters the burnt-out family of his absent friend). 22. Envy. 23. Politeness. 24. Deposits (he stores away safely an umbrella deposited with him). 25. Neighbourliness. 26. The public good (making a bridge for the use of the village). 27. Review of the book.

Fourth year.—1, 2. The Empire of Japan (picture of an old ceremony). 3. Patriotism (an old sea fight). 4, 5. Loyalty (illustrated by old stories). 6. Filial piety. 7. Brothers and sisters. 8. Co-operation. 9. Diligence. 10. Punctuality. 11. Firmness of will (picture of vaccination). 12. Courage. 13. Advice regarding your body (a boy stretching himself and yawning at sunrise, then washing). 14. Knowledge (a *daimyo* in a bullock cart). 15. Superstition (a *samurai*, alarmed by what he takes to be a ghost, cuts off its head, only to find a pumpkin; the supernatural motions of certain bits of paper in a temple prove to be due to the wriggings of eels concealed in the vase by the priests). 16. Etiquette. 17. Respect for the honour of others. 18. Philanthropy (rescuing a distressed crew). 19. Public services. 20. Military service. 21. Taxes. 22. Education. 23. Election of representatives. 24. Obedience to law. 25. Man is the head of all things. 26. Men and women. 27. A good Japanese.

561. In the case of the higher primary course the books contain more Chinese characters, and only a few pictures. Higher primary course.

First year.—1. The Emperor. 2. Prince Kita-Shirakawa (who died in Formosa). 3. Getting on in the world (illustrated by the faithful service of Hideyoshi when a boy). 4. Diligence. 5. Respect for the imperial family. 6. Effrontery. 7. Honesty is the basis of success. 8. Courage and charity. 9. Self-sacrifice in the spirit of a *samurai*. 10. Sincerity. 11. Firmness. 12. Frugality. 13. Industry. 14. Filial piety. 15. Politeness. 16. Habit. 17. How to form good habits. 18. Independence. 19. Regularity. 20, 21. Public services. 22. Hard work. 23. Patience. 24. Kindness to animals. 25. Kindness. 26. Philanthropy. 27. National holidays. 28. Review of the book.

Second year.—1. Home. 2. Master and servants. 3. Moral conduct. 4. Friendship. 5. Magnanimity. 6. Superstition. 7, 8. Courage. 9. Independence. 10. Patience. 11, 12. Diligence in study. 13. Honesty. 14. Sympathy. 15. Freedom. 16. Charity. 17-19. The Emperor. 20. Citizens. 21. Public health. 22. Public services. 23, 24. How to make industries prosperous. 25. Business. 26. Luck. 27. National duty. 28. The good Japanese.

Third year.—A.—Home :—

1. Family. 2. Filial piety. 3. Fraternity. 4. Ancestors. 5. Relatives. 6. Master and servants.

B.—Society:—

7. Society. 8. Friends. 9. Neighbours. 10. The lives and bodies of others. 11. The property of others. 12. The freedom of others. 13. The honour of others. 14. Gratitude. 15. Honesty. 16. Promises. 17. Magnanimity. 18. Kindness. 19. Charity. 20. Justice. 21. The public. 22. Social order. 23. Social progress. 24. Foreigners.

C.—The Person :—

25. One's self. 26-28. The body.

Fourth year.—The Person (continued). 1. Knowledge. 2. Courage. 3. Patience. 4. Self-examination. 5. Temperance. 6. Humility. 7. Honour. 8. Language. 9. Clothing. 10. Service. 11. Occupation. 12. Competition. 13. Credit. 14. Money. 15. Rules. 16. Self-help. 17. The application of scientific knowledge. 18. Moral culture. 19. Progress. 20. Intercourse with others. 21. Treatment of animals.

D.—The Nation :—

22. The Empire of Japan. 23. Loyalty and patriotism. 24, 25. National duty. 26. Self-governing bodies. 27. Election of representatives.

E.—Conclusion :—

28. The good Japanese

A review of
the books.

562. It will be seen that the subject "morals" is interpreted in a liberal sense, so as to include patriotism, civics, hygiene, and general propriety. The higher primary books were recently reviewed in the *Japan Mail*, the reviewer evidently regarding them as a great improvement on their predecessors. The pupils, he says, are admonished to be punctilious in returning borrowed umbrellas and rain-shoes, to be considerate and decorous in new surroundings, such as trains and steamers. Only one reference is made to intemperance, but several pages are devoted to kindness to animals and to suffering humanity, Miss Nightingale being taken as an example. The lesson on superstition is at once strong and free from offence; religious toleration is insisted on, false weights and measures condemned, and honesty commended; but it is suggested that circumstances may excuse the breaking of a promise. The negative maxim of Confucius is quoted, that we should refrain from doing to others what we do not wish done to ourselves; the positive maxim of Christ, which is its complement, is not referred to. Washington's magnani-

mity towards a fellow-officer who had insulted him is also quoted, and suicide explicitly condemned; for the first time organised benevolence, in the shape of orphan asylums, charity hospitals, etc., is recommended; and the pleasures of literature and art are held out as objects of pursuit even for school children. Patriotism is present throughout, but it is of a sober type, Japan being represented as a small country, in many respects behind the great nations of the world, so that it is the duty of every Japanese to work hard to bring his country up to their level.

563. For the middle schools the Department laid down a brief syllabus which has been followed by various private individuals in preparing text-books; in some schools, however, the instruction is given by lectures only. A translation was made for me of the subjects of one of the approved text-books, divided into five volumes corresponding to the five school years.

Volume I.

Chapter I.—What must be kept in mind by students.

Lesson 1. The duty of students. 2. Duty to their school. 3. Duty to their teachers. 4. Fixing one's aim in life. 5. Learning. 6. Concentration of energy. 7. Courage. 8. Health. 9. Temperance in eating and drinking. 10. Bodily exercise. 11. Rest and sleep. 12. Cleanliness. 13. Discipline of the body. 14. Progress. 15. Carefulness. 16. Alacrity. 17. Amusements. 18, 19. Language. 20. Conduct. 21. Deportment.

Chapter II.—Duty to Friends.

22. Friendship. 23. Faithfulness. 24. Co-operation. 25. Politeness.

Chapter III.—Duty at Home.

26. Home. 27. Filial piety. 28. Fraternity. 29, 30. Ancestors.

Volume II.

Chapter I.—The conduct of life.

1. Work. 2. Beginning of work. 3, 4. Consolidation. 5. Deliberation. 6. Decision. 7. Minuteness. 8. Diligence. 9. Order. 10. Perseverance. 11. Simplicity. 12. Co-operation. 13. Independence. 14. Faithfulness. 15. Promises. 16. Etiquette. 17. *Esprit-de-corps*.

Chapter II.—Duty to the State.

18. The Constitution. 19. Loyalty. 20. Obedience to the laws. 21. Extraordinary events.

Chapter III.—Moral Culture.

22. Culture. 23. Self-respect. 24. Modesty. 25. Introspection. 26-28. Self-control. 29, 30. Improvement.

Volume III.

Chapter I.—Duty to one's self.

1. One's self. 2, 3. Duty to the body, (a) Sustenance. 4. (b) Self-preservation.
5. Duty in respect of health. 6. Mind. 7. Wisdom, (a) Knowledge.
8. (b) Thoughtfulness. 9. (c) Decision. 10. Sentiment. 11. Will. 12. Personality.

Chapter II.—Duty to others.

13. To their lives. 14. To their freedom. 15. To their honour. 16. To their property. 17. To their personality. 18. To their feelings. 19. Honesty.
20. Promises. 21. Kindness. 22. Affection. 23. Sympathy. 24. Benevolence.
25. Self-sacrifice. 26. Magnanimity. 27. Gratitude. 28. Friendship. 29. Rank and Age. 30. Women.

Volume IV.

Chapter I.—Duty to the Family.

1. The family. 2. Ancestors. 3. Safety and prosperity. 4, 5. The members of a family.

Chapter II.—Duty to the Community.

6. The community. 7. *Esprit-de-corps*. 8. Order. 9, 10. Safety. 11. Prosperity. 12. Public office. 13. Other duties.

Chapter III.—Duty to the Imperial Family and the State.

14. The State. 15. The nation. 16. The constitution. 17. Honouring the Emperor. 18. Patriotism. 19. Obedience. 20. Taxation. 21. Military service.
22. Education. 23. Public services and fights.

Chapter IV.—International morality.

24. The relation of a State to others. 25. Peace. 26. Trade. 27. War.

Chapter V.—Duty to mankind.

28. Philanthropy.

Chapter VI.—Duty to the world.

29. Animals. 30. Natural objects. Conclusion.

Volume V.

Chapter I.—Introduction.

Section 1. Definition of ethics.

- " 2. Characteristics of ethics :—worth ; ideal ; law.
- " 3. Ethical questions :—morality ; the ground of morals ; motives, the application of principles.

Chapter II.—Conscience.

Section 1. Moralconsciousness.

- " 2. Properties of conscience :—intellectual elements ; emotional elements ; volitional elements.
- " 3. Working of conscience :—motives ; authority of conscience ; right and wrong.
- " 4. The origin and development of conscience.

Chapter III.—Conduct and character.

- Section 1. Moral conduct :—consciousness ; freedom ; conscience.
- ” 2. Elements of conduct :—motive ; action ; effect ; purpose.
- ” 3. Properties and working of these elements :—motive (impulse, instinct, reason) ; actions ; effects ; purpose.
- ” 4. Character :—unconscious elements ; conscious elements.
- ” 5. Responsibility :—cause and effect ; psychological freedom ; freedom of selection ; moral reason.

Chapter IV.—Standard of good and evil.

- Section 1. Subjective standard.
- ” 2. Objective standard.
- ” 3. The moral ideal.

Chapter V.—Duty.

- Section 1. Attributes of duty :—its absoluteness ; universality , distinctness.
- ” 2. The ground of duty.
- ” 3. Classification of duties.
- ” 4. Recognition of duty.

Chapter VI.—Virtue.

- Section 1. Attributes of virtue, and relation of virtue to duty.
- ” 2. Classification of virtues :—intellectual virtue , emotional virtue ; virtue of will.
- ” 3. Moral culture :—determination ; practice ; patience ; improvement ; aspiration ; special contrivances.

564. I had a few of the lessons in the first volume translated by an able young graduate of the university that I might be able to judge of their nature, and three examples are here subjoined, exactly as they were submitted to me, that they may serve as well as a gauge of the standard attained in English.

Lesson 4.—*Fixing one's aim in Life.*

“ Those who study must first of all fix the aim or direction of mind. One who has no fixed aim is fickle and subject to change, being moved by the slightest matter ; he attains nothing. All great men of immortal reputation, who accomplished great achievements, whether practical or moral, fixed their aim in life early in their age. The proverb “ When he will, his study is half done,” is no exaggeration. To fix his aim, one must not be compelled by others, but it must be done by his own enthusiasm. But the weak-minded man is apt to come to utter failure by a trifling obstruction, or by the temptation of external objects. The difficulty does not lie in fixing aim, but in carrying it through with perseverance and resolution. This must always be kept in mind by students. Some one fails to accomplish his object from his error in the method of fixing aim. One who sets up his direction of mind by a temporary feeling is the worst ; what was settled by a feeling may again be changed by another feeling. Such an important matter as fixing aim in life must be decided after consulting with elders and friends, by impartial opinion derived from the experiences of theirs. Otherwise his regret later in time will be of no use.”

Lesson 27.—*Filial Piety.*

"When a man comes to this world, parents do their best to bring him up, going through many difficulties. When it is well-grown, the child is sent under the care of teachers and friends chosen by them. Even in the full-grown age the parents always pay them full attention to the future of the child, setting their own body aside. The present of our life is nothing but the gift of parents. How shall we make return for this? We must first of all give easiness of mind and body to our parents. When we are living with them, therefore, we must be sincere, respectful, obedient, and amicable in order to please them. But those who study and wish to get on in the world are obliged to go far away from parents' home and cause uneasiness to parents, being unable to serve them in person. In this case, you must be diligent and industrious in study to answer the purpose of your parents' sending you away, and you must enquire of them frequently and see them, returning home as often as possible whenever you have time."

Lesson 29.—*Ancestors and Pedigree*

"To pay respect to ancestors and pedigree is one of the good habits peculiar to our country from the time of the foundation of our nationality. People of Japan are either the branches of the imperial house, or the descendants of the subjects who played important parts in assistance of the imperial house at the time of the foundation. Loyalty, therefore, has become respect for the ancestors. This is why the Japanese pay respect to their fathers and hold the same spirit as that of their ancestors. The reason for the flourishing of our country, which has never yielded to the power of foreign countries and been governed by one line of rulers, is to be ascribed not only to the dignity of the imperial house, but to the patriotism and loyalty of our fathers. We who were born and live in this land must consider it one of our duties to take after the achievements of the ancestors and not to spoil their name."

Value of
moral teach-
ing.

565. The value of formal moral teaching in schools has been, and is, keenly debated in Japan. On the one hand, it is clear that the authorities are greatly in earnest about it, and sincerely anxious to make it as effective as possible; and the official view seems to be that, though the present teaching may not be altogether satisfactory, yet it is improving. It is admitted that lecturing may not influence conduct much; that practical examples, supervision, and discipline are also required; but it is held that at the same time definite teaching is useful. In the lower grades this teaching is effected chiefly by stories, biographical or other; in the higher grades an attempt is made to show ethics as a science; throughout it is based on loyalty and filial piety, with something of Western ethics superadded. The mission

schools, of course, reinforce the Japanese basis by a Biblical one. But, as might be expected, Japanese boys are much more influenced by examples drawn from the history or literature of the Far East than by foreign or Biblical morality. And a moral lecturer has need to look to his footsteps carefully; a short time ago, when such a man teaching from an English text-book suggested that regicide is not always unjustifiable, the Government not only required his resignation, but cancelled retrospectively the right of the graduates of that school to teach in Government Schools.* On the other side, the usual objections are made to the attempt to teach morality from books. I find, for instance, in the *Japan Mail* the following summary of an article in a Japanese educational magazine:—

"All educationists are agreed that it is an entire mistake to try and teach morality principally by means of text-books. Instructors in morality should themselves be models of virtue, and they should be allowed to teach the subject in any way they think best. Instead of this, every primary school is saddled with certain text-books, and the teachers are expected to expound these books; and there their duty ends. The books are regarded as possessing sufficient authority and influence to make it a matter of little moment by whom they are expounded. But this is ridiculous. Real morality can never be taught in this fashion. Nor is this the way that it was taught in former times. It used to be the custom to cull from our history passages which describe noble and virtuous actions, that is to say, to appeal to living examples. When this is done, and when the teacher himself is a man that is highly respected by the pupils, school instruction on morality begins to be effective."

But there seems to be some exaggeration here, at least as regards the intentions of those in authority. So far as my own observations go, I was struck by the interest which the primary school children seemed to take in their moral readers; they were constantly to be seen poring over them in the evenings at home, and this not because they had any home-lesson to prepare. The pictures and the stories attract them, and by being read aloud at home may even influence a wider circle. Moreover, as the printed lessons are extremely brief, I do not see any reason why the teacher should not enlarge them by passages or examples

* Watson, *Japan, Aspect and Destinies*, p. 183

culled from history, as demanded by the critic quoted above ; probably all teachers who are interested in the subject do so. In addition to the pictures in the books, large illustrations of a similar character, and sometimes even lantern-slides, can be obtained from the educational publishers. It may be said that the moral lessons might equally well be inserted in the ordinary reading-books. Probably it does not make much difference ; in either case most of the effect depends on the teacher ; but perhaps the morality impresses the childish mind more by its visible distinctness. The children, again, are probably too young to know much about their teacher's private life, or to criticise it. In the secondary school the conditions are rather different ; the moral lesson is more formal, it is a subject to be prepared for examination like any other. No doubt a good teacher can make it live ; but it is admittedly often taught by men who dislike the work, and consequently the lesson is dry and perfunctory. The boys are older and better able to criticise ; and if they know that the teacher drinks and keeps a concubine, they are not unnaturally disposed to laugh at his teaching.

Other moral
agencies.

566. Besides the direct moral teaching there are other moral agencies, such as the physical training and manly sports referred to in the last chapter, of which fencing and wrestling at least are considered to have great moral influence, and to instil the proper spirit of a true Japanese *bushi* (knight) ; the influence of school discipline, of the personality of the teachers, and of well-managed boarding-houses. On all of these some remarks have been made in preceding chapters. The boarding-houses are supervised by a select number of the teachers, who take it by turns to reside with the students ; and the students in each room take it by turns to act as monitors or captains. But the tone of these institutions is democratic ; I doubt if the supervising teacher ordinarily has much to do ; and in some private schools, at least, the whole is left to the students themselves, except that the school arranges for the food-supply. The teachers, again, as a whole, do not seem particularly intimate with their pupils, or even to have any relations at all with them outside of the class-

room ; and in some cases, as already indicated, admittedly set them a poor example. There remain the general disciplinary arrangements. These vary from school to school and depend a good deal on the director ; from being semi-military in some places they fall away considerably in others. The punishments available (which, however, are seldom necessary) are admonition, detention, suspension, and expulsion ; corporal punishment, fining, impositions, standing on the form, are forbidden or unknown, though a boy is sometimes made to stand out by the black-board. The transfer rules of middle schools are strict, and there does not seem to be any laxity of discipline due to unfair competition between them. Work and conduct are duly recorded, and reported to the parents from time to time. And in the matter of "strikes" there has been improvement of late years. These last phenomena have naturally drawn repeated orders from the higher authorities. Thus, in 1893 instructions were issued that severe penalties should be inflicted on pupils who advised the school officials to resign, or demanded their dismissal or transfer from the superior authorities. In the following year further instructions were issued, that to make the pupils reverent to their teachers and superiors is the most important principle of moral education, and education which fails in this must tend to vicious habits, such as haughtiness and disobedience ; that pupils must not be allowed to form parties of more than three in order to submit their opinions, or demand personal interviews with directors and teachers, or demand explanations from them ; and that when they combine to offer resistance, to obstruct lessons, or to absent themselves, those most offending should be suspended for from a week to a year, or else expelled and not readmitted except by special pardon from the Minister. The object of these rules is stated to be "to check the malicious practice now prevailing amongst pupils of combining against the superior authorities." So late as 1902 another circular was issued to the local authorities, "in order to guard against such disturbances as have often threatened to break out among the pupils in secondary schools."

Y. M. C. A.
hostels.

567. To what has been said about boarding-houses a few words should be added on those maintained by the Young Men's Christian Association. Several of these have been established in different parts of the country in connection with the universities and higher schools, and it is hoped to extend this branch of the Association's work considerably. At present there is only one in Tokyo, taking 25 students, the intention being to provide a home and not a barrack. This is self-managed, the Association representatives acting as advisers only, not supervisors; the students elect 3 directors for the year—one from the university, one from the higher school, and one from the graduates; they engage their own cooks, and so forth. At some places they have to rent a building, but in the case of Tokyo the building was given them, and there is an endowment fund yielding about £15 a year, or enough to pay for insurance and petty repairs. A student pays 2 shillings monthly for his room, about 9 shillings for food, and about 6 more for bath, servants, etc. There is an assembly room, and another for games.

Chapter XXI.—EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS, CONFERENCES, etc.

Educational
associations.

568. Educational associations date from 1876, when a number of school officials, inspectors and teachers from nine prefectures met in Tokyo to discuss educational extension, and published minutes of their proceedings. Similar gatherings followed in other grand school districts. After the abolition of these districts in 1879 some of the prefectures instituted conferences of teachers and inspectors, and local associations were also formed for the benefit of the teachers of certain districts. In some cases the prefectural associations established branches in the subordinate districts; elsewhere minor associations grew into prefectural ones; until now there is scarcely a town or rural district that does not possess a local society, and no prefecture without a general one which maintains unity between the local bodies. These associations consist of teachers, inspectors, school officials, and persons interested in educational work; they discuss matters relating to education, give their opinions on questions submitted

to them, publish magazines, organise educational exhibitions and lectures, etc. In some cases they establish training institutes for teachers, compile text-books, or help to beat up the children of school age for the primary schools. Some are subsidised by prefectures or other local bodies. At their head stands the Imperial Education Society, founded in 1883, and now numbering some 5,000 members. It publishes a monthly journal, usually of more than 100 pages, containing lectures and translations, as well as Government orders, etc. It also sends out well-known speakers and lecturers to arouse public interest, and country gentlemen sometimes get the society to regulate the expenditure of their sons in Tokyo. The monthly subscription is equivalent to five pence. Prefectural associations usually meet once a year, under the presidency of the chief inspector, but may also have special sessions; they contain representatives of the smaller local associations. These meet twice a year or oftener; and sometimes a dozen neighbouring schools will have an association of their own, meeting once a month. Most teachers belong to one, along with well-to-do farmers, and other persons of local importance. I came across a district where there were both a special society for the directors and head teachers of schools, and another more general one; they met three or four times a year, sometimes for two or three days at a time; but all teachers not being able to afford so much time, they endeavour to have at least one meeting annually on a Saturday or Sunday, which all may attend. Sometimes a professor comes down from Tokyo and gives them a talk about education, or asks their views. Apart from these meetings, directors (and also sometimes teachers) seem to travel about a good deal, looking in at each other's schools in search of improvements; and part of the considerable sum expended annually on "travelling expenses" goes in this way. About some of the primary schools visited several sick or wounded men from the front were hanging, some of whom would introduce themselves as teachers from other districts and request permission to watch the classes.

Rules of an educational society.

569. Following are some extracts from the rules of a prefectural association which were translated for me :—

"The object of our society is to extend and improve education. When 30 members are available in a rural district a branch may be established there. Anyone who chooses may enter the society by permission of the president, or after introduction by a member.

"An entrance fee of 5 pence is payable. The annual subscription is 2s. 5d., but anyone can become a life member by paying £2.

"If a member wishes to withdraw he must give notice. Anyone who disobeys the rules, or "defiles and contaminates the honour of the society," shall be expelled.

"The work of the society consists of investigations into educational matters; lectures, speeches, and discussions on educational affairs; the establishing of a society for study; the sending of members to attend branch meetings; the distribution of a monthly educational magazine; the editing and publishing of useful and interesting works on education; and the honouring of those who have done good service to education or to our society.

"The officers of the society are:—a president, a vice-president, 2 directors, a committee of twice as many members as there are branch offices, 7 councillors, and 2 clerks. The president and vice-president are elected by the committee, half the members of which are also elected, the other half being nominated, one by each branch. The directors, councillors and clerks are appointed by the president, the term of office being two years. With the approval of the president, directors, councillors and members of committee may receive remuneration. Branch societies choose their own officers.

"The society meets on the second Sunday of February, April, September, and November, for lectures, discussions, questions, etc. A general meeting of all the members is held on the third Saturday and Sunday of June to receive the report and accounts, as well as for lectures or discussions.

"The society's work is intended to continue for long ages, hence the balance of its funds is accumulated at interest. The receipts of each branch are paid in to the head society, one-fifth of the income being returned; the rest of the expenses of a branch must be met by its members.

"If by direction of the head office any of the officers or members are despatched to other parts of the country, they may draw for travelling expenses—11 pence per 3 miles by carriage, or 5 pence by rail; 3s. 7d. a night for hotel expenses; and 20 pence for daily remuneration.

"The head office has a library for the convenience of members, and a club-room with conveniences for those coming from a distance.

"The price of the magazine is 3d. a copy, or 1s. 4d. for six months, or 2s. 5d. a year.

criticism.

570. These associations, however, have provoked some criticism, a writer in an educational magazine asserting that their meetings are

often attended by local magnates who care nothing about education, and that many of them jog along in a perfunctory manner which does not benefit education at all. Even the best of them, it is said, spend their time in the discussion of rules, methods, and systems, i.e., the formal part of education as distinguished from its vital principles. Very likely their work is of unequal value; but it can hardly be said that associations which actively canvass from house to house to get children, and especially girls, into the schools, or which bring together a couple of hundred teachers for a special course of training in their holidays, are altogether perfunctory. The Minister's report for 1902 notes that several of them arranged for the sending of students to an institution at Shanghai for study; that another purchased chemical and physical apparatus and circulated it among primary schools; that another contributed a number of educational articles for poor children; and so on.

571. Conferences of educational officials of one kind or another are held yearly according to circumstances. Thus, in 1902 the directors of the higher schools were convened for 15 days, and the directors of the special schools of medicine for 6 days, to discuss matters connected with their respective institutions; among the points submitted to the doctors being the construction and protection of a laboratory for the investigation of the bacteriology of plague. The summer institutes of teachers have been described in a former chapter. Conferences.

572. An educational museum is maintained in the former Temple of Confucius at Tokyo under the supervision of the higher normal school. The museum has three departments: the first exhibits articles connected with primary schools, kindergartens, and home education; the second deals with scientific education; and the third with technical education, along with drawing, music, and gymnastics. Amongst the exhibits I noticed some lantern-slides by English makers, all of which (except some by Messrs. Newton) had got into a very queer state, and were a singularly poor advertisement for their makers. A library and reading-room are also provided; and in a recent year the number of visitors to the Educational museum.

museum was 65,820, and of readers 13,130. A good proportion of the visitors were probably school children, brought by their teachers to have the objects explained to them.

Libraries.

573. Public libraries, being an educational agency, are supervised by the educational authorities. The Government itself maintains one, the Imperial Library, which possesses 371,000 volumes of Japanese and Chinese works, and 57,000 of European, about half of the total number being freely accessible to the public. In a recent year the number of visitors was 133,000, or about 417 a day; the number of persons licensed to take books out was 3,281; the number of volumes read by visitors was 709,600. Of these, 21 per cent. were works on mathematics, science or medicine; 19 per cent. on history, biography, geography, and travel; 18 per cent. on literature and languages. At the other end of the scale came works relating to philosophy or education (5 per cent.), and works relating to religion (1.9 per cent.). There are besides, 20 other libraries under public management, and 46 under private; but there are 14 prefectures without any library at all. Those just mentioned contain between them 577,000 Japanese or Chinese volumes, and 27,000 European, but the reading public in the provinces does not seem to be great, the daily average of visitors being only 13. Book-sellers report that of foreign books works on architecture, chemistry, electricity, engineering, industrial arts, and metallurgy, together with dictionaries and encyclopædias, enjoy the largest demand. German books have driven out all others in medicine, and tend to predominate in law; for politics French works are preferred. Taine's English Literature heads its class; H. Spencer is most popular in philosophy, Herbart in pedagogy.*

Educational literature.

574. Japan seems to produce an immense quantity of periodical literature of an educational kind. Not only do numerous educational societies publish their own magazines, but many publishing firms do the same. One firm publishes a magazine dealing

* Clement, *Handbook of Modern Japan*, p. 204.

specially with female education, which has been running for 5 years. The contents of a recent issue were : — Female education, new energy among women, new occupations for women, the renovated home of the 20th century, household management, the English spoken by Japanese school girls, the pleasures of old age, sanitation, and methods of letter-writing. The same firm issues another magazine for middle schools, dealing with topics suited to them, and endeavouring to acquaint the Japanese student with the school life of the European or American boy.

Chapter XXII.—TEXT-BOOKS.

575. The subject of text-books has constantly engaged the attention of the Department, with the result that the rules have been frequently modified. At first the Department sent to the local governors a list of books selected from the publications of public or private compilers, at the same time conducting a compiling office of its own ; by 1885 the books compiled were more than 300 in number, and those on the authorised list over 900. In the next year the publishers of books for primary, secondary, or normal schools were ordered to submit their books, with a fee, to the Department for approval ; those selected were to be used for 5 years, the best being also awarded certificates. Subsequently persons versed in the theory and practice of education were appointed to compile the primary books, whilst professors in Government institutions were engaged to prepare others for the secondary and normal schools ; or the subject was published, and writers invited to compete, or books were purchased and issued after revision. In 1887 it was decided that when the local governors desired to select or change books for primary schools, the matter was to be left to an examining committee appointed from time to time ; the object of inspection was declared to be to ascertain that there was nothing bad in the book, without determining its relative superiority or inferiority ; and a book once appointed was not to be changed for at least four years. In 1891 fresh rules were made as regards the primary schools, and the

The supply of text-books.

inspection committee was to consist of a high local official, the chief inspector of schools, two members of the prefectural executive council, the director of the normal school, a director of a middle school, two teachers of the normal school, and from 3 to 5 primary teachers appointed by the Governor. The standard of print was regulated, poor print and coarse paper being prohibited. In 1900 fresh changes were introduced, but two or three years later the educational world was convulsed by a scandal of the first magnitude relating to the selection of primary text-books by the local inspection committees. Publishers had devoted much attention to these committees, with the result that three local governors, a number of school inspectors, and even some teachers of morals found themselves under arrest for corruption. As the Minister plaintively reports "owing to the baseful acts on the part of book-sellers, and also to the disgraceful conduct on the part of some members of the examination committee, it was once apprehended that almost all school books should lose their validity, and there would be no appropriate books worthy to be adopted whatever." In consequence the Department reserved to itself the right of compiling books for the primary schools, some power of selection being left to the governors, except as regards morals, Japanese, Japanese history, geography and drawing. In the case of physical training, sewing, handwork, science, and singing, the use of text-books is forbidden. The printing and selling of the books compiled by the Department are left to the publishers who submit the lowest tender. In some cases special books are prepared for the use of teachers.

For secondary schools publishers may submit their books for inspection, books published abroad being admissible as text-books in English, German, or French. For normal schools the selecting authority is the Minister of State; for middle and 'girls' schools the local governor selects from the books approved by the Minister. The books now sanctioned for all schools number 4,605.

576. Following are the present rules for the examination of Rules for the examination of text-books :—
 text-books :—

1. The examination is to test their suitability for normal, secondary, and primary schools.
2. The publisher of any book may submit a request for its examination. As for books published abroad, only those intended for the teaching of English, German, or French in normal or secondary schools, or of English in primary schools, may be submitted.
3. A fee shall be paid equal in amount to the fixed price of 20 copies of each book, for each kind of school in which it is to be used ; and two copies of the book must be submitted. If the price is raised after passing the test, the difference shall be paid also ; and no book in which the fixed price is not mentioned shall be examined.
4. If it is obvious that a slight alteration will make the book suitable, the points to be altered shall be notified to the petitioner.
5. The title, number of volumes, price, the kind of schools and subject of study for which the book is designed, the date of publication, the name of the author or translator, and the name, address, and nationality of the publisher, shall be notified in the official Gazette.
6. The privileges consequent on the satisfying of the examiners do not extend to books altered after the examination.
7. If any of the points named in rule 5 are altered, the privilege is withdrawn from the book, unless the changes are again notified in the Gazette.
8. If a petitioner wishes to know why a book is rejected, he must enquire within 60 days after the notification.
9. Those who wish to have a book re-examined after alteration, must pay the fee again.
10. When a publisher makes any change in a book he must give public notice of it to the Department.
11. A fee once paid shall under no circumstances be returned.
12. " Alteration " includes a change of title, increase or decrease of sentences, phrases, or illustrations ; a change of the number of lines ; change in the quality of the paper, change in the preface, notices, or appendices.
13. When points requiring correction have been indicated, the re-examination of the book after correction must be asked for within one year.
14. The statement " for the use of . . . school, passed the examination of the Educational Department on . . . " shall be given on a part easy to be seen of every volume.
15. Books not passed must not be sold with the above inscription.
16. Those who violate rule 15 shall be sentenced to a fine not exceeding 50 shillings, or to minor imprisonment for not more than 25 days.
17. An incomplete set of books will not be examined.
18. When a petitioner does not reside in Japan he must appoint an agent living

in the Empire. In such case a copy of the letter of authorisation, together with a translation of it, must be appended to the petition.

Chapter XXIII.—THE SENDING OF STUDENTS ABROAD.

The sending
of students
abroad.

577. It is now about 40 years since the first group of Japanese students went abroad for study, chiefly to America. The Government sent many at its own expense, and in 1873 there were about 250 such abroad, including some young women. But it was found to be a mistake, and an expensive one, to send raw students to foreign countries, and most of them were recalled to study in the new institutions at home, their place being gradually taken by a smaller number, better trained to begin with in foreign languages and sciences; between 1875 and 1892, in fact, only 95 Government students were sent out, 5 of whom returned prematurely. In 1892 new regulations were made on the subject. Students were to be selected from the graduates or teachers of Government schools; the number was not to exceed 22 at one time; the subject of study, country, and period were to be fixed by the Minister; the sum allotted was not to exceed £180 yearly; and on their return they were to accept any duties assigned to them, serving for a period equal to twice the time of their absence. In 1896 the number was raised to 35, and by the end of the following year 50 were abroad. Then the want of professional instructors was felt to be urgent, and the Government determined to send abroad as many as possible; also the amount hitherto allotted to them had not always been adequate, and many students had been embarrassed, so that it was provided that the grant of £180 might be increased by an additional sum up to £150 in special cases, or for touring. The number sent out in 1899 was 58, and at the end of the year 100 were abroad. The next year it was decided that besides the graduates and teachers mentioned above the Minister might select other fit persons; detailed rules were issued, and a strict examination of each candidate's physique insisted on. In the last year for which information is available, *viz.*, 1902, 48 were sent abroad, to Germany, England, the United States, France, Belgium, Switzerland, Italy, Austria, and

Holland ; and at the end of the year the number of Government students abroad was 123, including 2 women. Those who returned during the year were 41, and the list of subjects studied by them shows the catholicity of the system. These were pathological anatomy, Chinese literature, history of literature, mathematics, bacteria, diseases of children, skin diseases, Hindu philosophy, chemistry, method of primary school teaching, German, the piano, dyeing, agriculture, civil law, commerce, comparative history of legislation, science of education, gymnastics, metallurgy, of iron, dentistry, agricultural chemistry, architecture, obstetrics and gynecology, medical jurisprudence, violin and solo-singing, criminal law and procedure, civil engineering, ethics, wool dyeing, woollen cloth printing and finishing, female education, English, electricity as a motive power, fine metallic work, glass and porcelain manufacture, drawing, and, finally, the languages, geography, and history of Oceania.

678. The detailed rules do not add much of importance to what has already been indicated. They refer to selection by examination, but I could not learn that any actual examination takes place ; normally, at least, a man is selected and recommended by the director of his school, and sent abroad if the necessary funds are forthcoming. When a new school of importance is to be established the Japanese with their usual forethought select their staff in advance, and send some of them abroad for a final training while the school is being built and organised ; then, as the classes become available, the men are gradually brought back. For it is an essential part of the system that the men should *teach* on their return, and that for twice the period of their studentship ; in this way it is made necessary for them to attend to their work during their absence, the country makes sure of getting some return for the expenditure, and the men themselves are secure of a living immediately on their return, and for a period during which they can look about for a permanent berth, if they so please. During their absence they are under the orders of the nearest Japanese legation ; and if they

Some features
of the system.

break their obligations, or misconduct themselves, they are liable to have to refund what has been spent on them. It must be confessed that in most of these respects some of the arrangements made in India (I do not refer to those administered by the Government) for aiding students to go abroad are very defective. Even the suitable preliminary training is not always required, and I have heard of a man after a purely literary training volunteering to study *either* electrical engineering *or* agricultural chemistry, as fate might determine, and of another who was indifferent as to whether it was glassware, soap, tin toys, porcelain, scent, or matches, that he studied. The students are under no supervision, nothing is expected of them on their return, and nothing is provided for them; they have no capital of their own, and no one seems in the least disposed to assist them in the manufacture of soap or matches, as the case may be. It is not surprising if, as is said, some of them devote more attention to keeping terms for the Bar than to the technical study for which they were nominally sent. Of course, even in Japan curious things happen, and a man has been known to set out as a student of engineering, and to return as a professor of Sanskrit; but on the whole the authorities there are quite satisfied with the working of their system, since men began to be picked more carefully from those who had had a sound preliminary training. It is noteworthy also that not only fresh graduates, but men already employed in teaching are given the opportunity of improving themselves. When an instructor is thus sent abroad he is no longer reckoned among the regular staff, but under special circumstances as much as one-third of his salary may be paid to him. In all cases an allowance of £20 is made for outfit, for Europe or America; and £70 are allowed for the journey (each way) to the Western States of America, £80 for the Eastern States, France, or England, £82 for Germany, or £95 for Russia. The annual allowance is £180 for all countries except China and Korea, but it may be increased under special circumstances; and a student delayed in any place by sickness or accident may be allowed 18 shillings a day. The terms are

thus considerably more liberal than those on which some Indian students are expected to proceed to England, some of the scholarships here being worth only about £100 annually, without travelling or outfit allowance. It should be added that not all who go from Japan avail themselves of the full allowance; men who go simply for investigation and report receive a contribution towards their expenses. But in one way or the other, almost every conceivable subject is taken up in succession, whereas in India, with the exception of some provision for those who wish to compete for the Indian Civil Service, the facilities seem to be almost wholly for technical men; and those who take up a professional or educational appointment practically debar themselves from all chance of improvement by study abroad.

579. Mr. Hearn (*Japan*, p. 479) has remarked on the astonishing success of many Japanese students at foreign universities—astonishing if we consider the immense psychological differences between them and those with whom they are brought into competition. They are, of course, carefully selected, and doubtless possess the marvellous memory of their race. But he goes on to say that with their return to Japan there is commonly an end of effort in the speciality they have studied, unless it be something practical, such as surgery, or engineering, or military specialities; and asks whether this indicates incapacity for independent work on Western lines, or only indifference. The answer seems to him to lie partly in the fact that native scholarship has not yet been properly encouraged in Japan. But the fact is also that many of these men are looking forward to good posts in Government service after their obligatory service as teachers; and their foreign study is but an episode which makes them more valuable to their Government, but to which they are not disposed to attach any other value.

“Each has to qualify himself for special duty by learning how Western people study and think and feel in certain directions; but he is not ordered to think or feel like Western people. He has not, and probably could not have, any deep personal interest in Western learning outside of applied science. But he does exactly what he has been told to do, and rarely anything more.”

Chapter XXIV.—INDIAN STUDENTS IN JAPAN.

Number and
occupations
of Indian
students.

580. After sending her sons to all parts of the world in search of knowledge and practical skill, Japan has in the last few years seen representatives of other nations coming in their turn to learn of her, and especially Chinese, Koreans, Filipinos, and natives of India. The earliest reference I have found to these last is in the Minister's report for 1900, when one Indian was attending the college of medicine, and two more the college of engineering, at Tokyo, where the university had 11 foreign students in all. In the same year 2 were admitted to the higher technical school, though there was so much pressure upon its space that only 132 applicants could be enrolled out of 453. In 1901 the report mentions the attendance of one Indian at the college of medicine, and the graduation of the other two from the course of mining and metallurgy in the college of engineering. In 1902 there seems to have been an influx, the medical college having 1, that of engineering 6, and the higher technical school 8, or 15 altogether. For 1903 no figures are available, but for 1904 I have the results of my own enquiries. In May there were 15 students in Tokyo of whom 8 were from Nepal. Three had not yet decided upon their course, and the rest were distributed as follows:—College of Science 2, College of Engineering 4, College of Agriculture 1, and Higher Technical School 5. The Nepalese were supported by their State, and some of the others held scholarships; one was a Brahman; two whom I saw had graduated from Allahabad University. A fresh academic year having begun in September, I repeated my enquiries before leaving Japan, with this result:—*Tokyo*.—College of Medicine 1, College of Agriculture 1, College of Engineering 5, Higher Technical School 4; total 11. *Kyoto*.—College of Engineering 1, Municipal porcelain laboratory 1. These 13 men, of whom 8 were Nepalese, were said to be all the Indian students engaged in any regular work at the time. It will be seen that the Tokyo students had diminished in number between May and September; one had graduated from the higher technical school,

and the rest had given up the attempt to contend with the difficulties encountered in Japan, and were supposed to have gone to America. To enter a little more into detail, 5 Nepaulese and 2 Indians were attending the Imperial University at Tokyo. One of the Indians was pursuing the course in pharmacy, the other, nominally attending the college of engineering, was compelled to find room elsewhere for practical work; two of the Nepaulese were studying the technology of arms, two mining and metallurgy, and one agriculture. The remaining Nepaulese had devoted themselves respectively to ceramics, applied chemistry, and mechanical engineering at the higher technical school. Only one student from India proper was at this school; he had migrated from the college of engineering on account of the want of room there, and had now taken up glasswork. The university student at Kyoto was a graduate of Calcutta, working at mining and metallurgy. During the summer vacation several of the Tokyo students had undertaken practical work in workshops at Osaka, to which they readily gained admission through introductions furnished by their Japanese professors. These various details were learned from some of the students themselves, with whom an English professor at the university kindly put me into communication. This gentleman, though he had no direct connection with them, evidently took considerable interest in their welfare, and was ready to befriend them so far as he could. But it does not appear to be any one's business to look after them in any way, to know what they are doing, or even how many there are in the country. Their official introductions are recorded at the British Legation, and that is all.

581. Indian students coming to Japan have certain difficulties to face. The most obvious of these is the language, a sufficiency of which for every-day purposes they seem to pick up readily, but the lectures delivered in Japanese are naturally beyond them, unless they have devoted some time to a regular study of the language. They can, however, get the notes translated for their use, and in the case of practical work the professors are

Difficulties of
Indian
students.

able to give them explanations individually in English. Another difficulty is connected with food and lodging. There is a notice-board close to the university indicating a "Lodging-house for Indian Students," but the place was said to be very indifferent, and some of them had left it, having succeeded in finding a servant who understood the sort of food they preferred. The three Nepaulese attending the higher technical school lodged together in its neighbourhood with their own servant; whilst the Indian at the university of Kyoto had secured a room in the dormitory there, and lived in the Japanese manner. But the chief difficulty remains; all the institutions of a technical character are so crowded with Japanese students that it is very hard to find room for a foreigner, especially if he turns up suddenly and without notice, as the Indians commonly do. The laboratories of the engineering college are so full that several students have had to attend those of the college of science, in order to get any practical work at all, though the courses are not the same; one, as I have said, migrated to the higher technical school after spending a year at the college, whilst others had abandoned Japan for America. The higher technical school, again, has far more applicants than it can entertain, and charges strangers a double fee (£4 a year), partly because they give more trouble, and partly because there is no desire to encourage them to come in increased numbers. Whilst the Japanese cannot find room for nearly all of their own students, it is not to be expected that they will exclude still more, in order to make room for foreigners; and if they must admit foreigners, there are obvious reasons why they should prefer Chinese and Koreans to anyone else. In view of these various difficulties it was the deliberate opinion of an English professor that Indians could do better for themselves by going to England or America, where they could understand the language from the beginning, and where they would be at the fountain-head; for, after all, whatever the Japanese know of these matters they have learned from Europe and America.

582. The one advantage which Japan has to offer is the cheap- Expenditure.
ness of living and of tuition. The unsatisfactory boarding-house for Indian students mentioned above charges them from 12 to 13 yen a month (18-20 rupees). The higher technical school fee is 40 yen (60 rupees) a year ; that of the Tokyo University 25 yen (37 rupees), with 10 yen extra for engineering materials ; whilst the university of Kyoto charges 35 yen (52 rupees) annually. The Chinese students attending the first higher school in Tokyo are allowed by their Government 25 yen a month for necessary expenses, and 15 for themselves, the equivalent of 60 rupees in all. But a circular issued by an Indo-Japanese Association in Tokyo estimates that an Indian student should be prepared to spend 75 rupees a month on living, books, and fees, and must have both summer and winter clothes of European pattern. The same circular, it may be noted, adds that at least 8 months are required to learn something of the language ; that the standard of the entrance examination is equal to the Indian B.A. ; and that a candidate should have some knowledge of mathematics, physics, chemistry, and drawing.

583. Coming now to the opinion which the Japanese have formed of Indian students, it must be said in the first place that ^{Japanese} ^{opinion of} ^{Indians,} was everywhere complimented on the excellence of their English ; and indeed the average Indian student does both speak and understand English infinitely better than the average Japanese student of similar standing. Nor is any fault found with their mental powers. In spite of the language difficulty several have graduated successfully from the institutions they joined, and several more are likely to do so in due course. No doubt this is facilitated by the fact that there are no outside examiners to be conciliated, as long as a man's general work is approved by his teachers there is no difficulty about the diploma. And the students all say that the Japanese are very kind to them. Nevertheless, I could not help coming to the conclusion that the Indians had not produced an altogether favourable impression,

and that no one in Japan specially desired to see their number multiplied. It is not merely that one or two have proved unsatisfactory in the class-room, changing from subject to subject, and then disappearing, but some have got into moral difficulties, and others into political. On moral grounds the director of one important institution had had trouble; whilst one of the earliest arrivals delivered to Japanese students an address which attracted the unfavourable attention of the British Legation, and others have talked in such a way that the Japanese themselves asked an English resident of Tokyo to inform the authorities. 'Even in the interior I came upon traces of Indians,' and they were unsatisfactory. A large town had been favoured by a visit from one who gave himself out to be a graduate of an engineering college in Bombay; he delivered some addresses, and cut a dash generally, until he disappeared without paying his bill, leaving behind him such an ill name that every one who conversed with me there, Japanese or foreign, referred to the incident. In another case, in a very obscure and remote country town, my landlord informed me that some years ago an Indian (whose name he still recollected) delivered an address in the local middle school, denouncing the political condition of India. Not content with this he went on to denounce the changes of the present era in Japan, whereupon his audience concluded that he must be crazy. Now, whether these two individuals were present in Japan for purposes of study I do not know; but in any case they did not shed much lustre on the Indian name. There are people who seem to think that, because Japan and India are both in Asia, therefore Japan must take a great interest in India. In Indian cotton, perhaps, but not, I think, in Indian politics. The fact is that the Middle and the Far East have little in common; by her position, her history, her language, and her past civilisation, Japan belongs to the Chinese East; her connection with India is remote, and is ignored by all but a few students of Buddhism and of Sanskrit. Asia, again, according to the Japanese leaders, is a mere expression; what really counts is not the continent in which you happen to live, but the degree of civilisation

which you have attained. For 30 years Japan has been striving to establish her claim to stand alongside of the great civilised powers of the world, as civilisation goes nowadays, the powers, that is, of Europe and North America; the nation which some Indian visitors have thought fit to denounce in no measured terms happens to have been one of her principal models for the last generation or more, and one with whom she is actually in alliance at present; and the Japanese show no particular desire to listen to any more diatribes of this kind. It is not necessary to take such foolish vapourings too seriously; but at the same time they are liable to create embarrassments, and do not tend to make Indian students more respected or more popular.

584. In conclusion, it cannot be too strongly impressed on Indian students who may think of visiting Japan for technical study, *first*, that there is very little room for them; *secondly*, that they will find the language a great difficulty; *thirdly*, that if they can bear the cost of going to England or America, they will probably do better for themselves in the end; and *fourthly*, that, if they must go to Japan, they should arrange for a preliminary study of the language, and give as long notice as they can to the director of the institution they wish to join, in order that a place may be reserved for them if possible. Conclusions.

Chapter XXV.—FINANCE.

585. Of the financial aspect of each branch of education some-
thing has been said in the corresponding chapter; it remains to give a general view of educational expenditure. But first it may be worth while to say a little about Japanese finance in general, the statistics being derived from *Japan in the Beginning of the 20th Century* (p. 481, etc.). Before the Restoration the hundreds of feudal lords had a variety of financial systems of their own; they issued debased coins, raised taxes in advance, and had contracted extravagant debts. The principal source of revenue was the land-tax, paid in rice, and amounting to from 30 to 70 per cent. of the total yield; and the revenue was mainly expended on maintaining the military retainers of the *daimyos*, an economi-
National finance.

cally unproductive class. The *daimyos* did, indeed, contribute a nominal tribute to the *Shogun* at Yedo, but the latter's ordinary revenue came from his own feudal dominions. After the Restoration the *daimyos* surrendered their feudal rights, and the Imperial Government laboured at the herculean task of establishing a national system of finance on modern lines. It took 12 years to reorganize the land-tax, this involving (1) the establishment of the right of private ownership, (2) the removal of various restrictions on the sale of land, and on the growing of crops other than rice, (3) the assessment of the value of land, no longer by the yearly harvest but by quinquennial averages, (4) the payment of taxes in money instead of kind. The land-tax is normally $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on the assessed value, though it was slightly raised for five years after the China War; its proceeds in 1883, when the new assessment was completed, amounted to £4,300,000 out of the six millions derived from taxation, and now to little more (£4,700,000) out of a total of nearly 16 millions. New taxes soon required to be added. Those on liquors now produce six millions or more, the most important being the tax on *sake*, which has been quadrupled since its imposition in 1878. The income-tax, on all incomes above £30 a year, is graduated, the lowest rate being one per cent.; it made its appearance in 1887, bringing in £52,000, now grown to over £700,000. In 1896 a complicated business-tax was introduced, affecting every occupation, from that of the mill-owner to those of the *jīnrikisha* cooly and the *geisha*; this at first brought in £440,000, now grown to nearly £700,000. The smaller businesses are left to local taxation, a *jīnrikisha* man in the country paying about 2s. 2d. the half-year for his licence. The Government has created a tobacco monopoly, and other taxes were numerous, even before the present war. Customs duties, again, have greatly increased since the revision of the Treaties, and now account for over £1,600,000. The following figures will give some idea of the rapid development of national finance, especially after the war

with China, the figures representing millions sterling :—

			Revenue.	Expenditure.
1873	8.5	6.2
1883	8.3	8.3
1893	11.3	8.4
1898	22	21.9
1903	25.1	24.4

The Budget for 1903 estimated the ordinary revenue at 23 millions, made up of, taxes 68 per cent., public undertakings 23, stamps 6, and miscellaneous 3, to which about 2 millions of extraordinary revenue had to be added. The amount here assigned to taxes (nearly 16 millions) was thus made up roughly :—*Sake* tax 42 per cent., land tax 30, customs duties 11, business-tax 4, income-tax 4, sugar excise 4, *soy* (sauce) tax 2, and miscellaneous 2; whilst the 5 millions or more derived from public undertakings may be thus distributed roughly :—Post and telegraph 49 per cent., tobacco 24, railways 16, forests 5.6, State property 0.4, and miscellaneous 4.

The estimated expenditure, on the other hand, was over 24 millions, one quarter of this being extraordinary. The percentages showing its distribution between the Departments of State are roughly as follows :—Finance 27.4, Communications 19, Army 17, Navy 12, Interior 11.4, Justice 4.3, Commerce and Agriculture 4, Education 3, Imperial Household 1.2, and Foreign Affairs 0.9.

Lastly, we may show a little more accurately the percentage of the total expenditure devoted to education, compared with that spent on the army and navy :—

			Army and Navy.	Education.
1873	17.1	2.1
1883	21.1	1.1
1893	27	1.3
1903	29.2	2.7

586. Local taxation is of two kinds, prefectural and municipal, Local finance. some of the taxes being independent ones, others being rates levied on national or prefectural taxes. The rural district (*gun*) does not levy taxes, but draws its funds from the towns and vil-

lages within it. Less than ten years ago the whole local revenue was less than six millions sterling, and the expenditure about five; but in 1899 the former amounted to 14 millions and a half the latter to 12 millions. The revenue of prefectures in a recent year came to £5,900,000, of which 37 per cent. accrued from the rate on the land-tax; the expenditure was £5,200,000, the principal items being police (52 per cent.) and education (17 per cent.). The revenue of cities in the same year was £2 400,000, the chief single item being the business-tax rate, which brought in 7 per cent.; the expenditure was £1,900,000, education forming the leading item (21 per cent.). Lastly, towns and villages enjoyed a revenue of £6,200,000, to which the house-tax rate contributed 34 per cent. and the land-tax rate 19; whilst £5,800,000 were expended, the principal items being education (36 per cent.) and local offices (21 per cent.). Hence the percentage of their total expenditure which various local bodies devote to education may be shown as follows:—

	1893.	1900
Prefectures	5·2	17
Cities	25·8	21·4
Towns and villages ...	35·2	36·4

For rural districts no figures are at hand. The great increase in the case of prefectures was, no doubt, due to the development of secondary and normal schools, municipalities being mainly concerned with primary education. As for cities, their actual educational expenditure was over £500,000, or an average of £8,700 each; whereas I have read that the municipality of Calcutta has only recently been urged into spending so much as £1,000 on education.

Loans.

587. The national debts incurred by the Japanese Government have been mainly for the reorganisation of the national institutions. At the beginning of the century the total amount borrowed was 85 millions sterling, of which 11 millions were foreign loans and 74 domestic; and 31 millions had been redeemed. The China war and the expansion which followed it naturally involved a good deal of borrowing; the unredeemed debt, which was 27

millions in 1892, had become 59 by 1902; the debt per head of population, which was 13s. 6d. in the former year, having grown to 25 shillings in the latter. Local loans have also grown, partly with the natural expansion of local self-government, and partly because Japan is the scene of so many catastrophes, fires, floods, earthquakes, tidal waves, etc. Such debts totalled only £200,000 in 1891, but had grown to over a million by 1896, and to 4 millions by 1901. Three-quarters of this debt was contracted for public works; about 4 per cent. for education.

588. The following table (taken from *Japan by the Japanese*, Incidence per head of population, p. 355) shows the incidence per head in 1900 of national and local taxes and debts, expressed in shillings:—

		Taxes.	Debts.
National	7.3	23.08
Prefectural	1.58	0.4
Municipal	1.32	0.74
Total	10.2	24.22

The next table (taken from Dyer's *Dai Nippon*, p. 303) shows, also in shillings, a variety of incidences per head at an interval of ten years:—

		1892-3.	1902-3
Total revenue	6.66	12.32
Total expenditure	5.04	12.3
Ordinary revenue	5.28	10.12
Ordinary expenditure	4.18	7.76
Taxation	4.3	6.64
Imports	4.7	11.86
Exports	5.96	11.28

Lastly, Dr. Dyer gives the following table to show the incidence per head in 1901 of various national debts:—

		£	s.	p.
Commonwealth of Australia	51	3	4
France	33	1	0
Great Britain	18	9	11
Russia	4	19	8
Japan	• ...	1	6	4

He adds that the yearly interest on the British debt comes to about 10s. per head, whereas that on the Japanese is only about 1s. 2d.

Total educa-
tional expen-
diture.

589. We come now to a general view of educational expenditure in 1902-3, limited, however, to that of Government and public schools, for no statistics of private institutions are available. The total expenditure of the Educational Department and its dependent institutions was £793,000, that of local bodies £4,449,000, making a total of £5,242,000. Here a certain amount must be reckoned twice over, being granted by the Department towards the public school expenditure; on the other hand, the educational expenditure of other Departments (Imperial Household, Interior, Communications, Army, and Navy) is not included. A calculation of what are called in India "sources of expenditure" yields a total of £5,215,000. Approximately, therefore, the total expenditure may be said to be five millions, equal to about £108 per thousand of population, and close on £1 per pupil in Government and public institutions.

Sources of
expenditure.

590. The sources of expenditure are classified in India as public and private, the latter including fees, subscriptions, endowments, etc. In the case of Japan, the income of the Government institutions may be deduced from the published figures as having been about £84,000, but the sources of this income are not stated. If it were all fees, the average annual fee incidence per pupil would be nearly 91 shillings, or at least twice as much as is probable; it will be convenient, therefore, to treat half of it as derived from fees, and the rest from miscellaneous sources. For local expenditure more details are available; the total income was £817,000, of which £27,000 came from the National Treasury, £472,000 from fees, and £318,000 from miscellaneous sources. Putting these items together, and classifying them after the Indian fashion, we find that the National Treasury contributed £710,000 and local bodies £3,631,000, making a total expenditure from public sources of £4,341,000. Fees brought in £514,000 and other sources £360,000, making a total expenditure from "private" sources of £874,000. But it may be repeated that schools under private management are outside of these calculations. Reducing these figures to percentages, we find that Government contributed 13·6 per cent.,

local bodies 69·6, fees 9·8, and other sources 7; that is, 83·2 per cent. came from "public" sources, and 16·8 from "private."

The Government expenditure, as already stated, represents less than 3 per cent. of the total national expenditure; prefectures spend 17 per cent. of their total on education; cities, towns, and villages 32·7 per cent.; whilst the figures for rural districts are not available. These districts, however, contributed 1·7 per cent. towards the total local expenditure of £3,631,000, prefectures 26·3 per cent., and cities, towns and villages 72.

Taking the fees next, we have assumed the Government fees to amount to about £42,000, giving an average fee incidence of £2·2 per pupil. Of the local fees, amounting to £472,000, over 70 per cent. were derived from primary schools or kindergartens, over 25 per cent. from secondary schools for boys or girls, and over 3 per cent. from technical schools, leaving about 1 per cent. for other institutions of a special or miscellaneous character. The average annual fee incidence here in shillings would be about 1·3 for the primary schools and kindergartens, 24·2 for the secondary schools, and 5·7 for the technical.

Lastly, there are the miscellaneous private sources, the nature of which, in the case of the Government schools, is not indicated; for public schools they amount to £318,000, out of which voluntary contributions account for 50 per cent., and the income from school stock property for 16.

591. The objects of expenditure are in India divided into direct and indirect, the latter including the cost of direction and inspection, of buildings and equipment, university charges, scholarships, etc.; but the Japanese statistics do not lend themselves easily to a parallel arrangement, buildings, for instance, being included in the general expenditure, and the details being insufficient. Objects of expenditure.

The Government expenditure of £793,000 may be thus distributed by percentages:—The Department (regular) 5·8; dependent institutions (regular) 38·2; buildings and repairs 22·4; other special expenditure 8·7; scientific committees, etc., 1·1;

salaries for normal school directors 0·8; grant for technical education 4; grant for primary education 18·9. If the 38 per cent. devoted to the regular expenditure of dependent institutions be analysed, it appears that 24·3 per cent. went to higher schools and universities, 8·8 to higher normal, technical, agricultural, and commercial schools, and 5·1 to special and other institutions. Of the total expenditure 88 per cent. came from the National Treasury.

The local expenditure, again, of £4,449,000 may be distributed either according to the class of schools, or according to the nature of the expenditure. Taking first the various schools, we get the following percentages:—primary schools and kindergartens 71, secondary schools 14, normal schools 6·5, technical schools 6, other schools 0·5, miscellaneous 2.

If we take the various forms of expenditure, the percentages will be the following:—salaries 50·2; buildings and repairs 27·3; furniture, books and apparatus 7; articles of consumption 4; pupils' expenses 2·7; travelling expenses 1·3; rent 0·8; miscellaneous 6·6. Of the whole amount nearly 82 per cent. came from local funds, representing a tax of 1·58 shillings per head of population.

Again, we may attempt to show what proportion the cost of certain institutions bears to the total expenditure, national and local. These percentages are approximately as follows:—primary schools and kindergartens 60·6; secondary 11·9; higher schools 0·9; imperial universities 2·9; technical schools (Government and public) 5·8; training schools for teachers (Government and public) 6·1. A rude calculation given in the third chapter estimates the cost of direction and inspection at £122,000; if this is anywhere near the truth, it would amount to 2·3 per cent. of the whole. The amount spent on buildings by Government and local authorities together was £1,395,000, or over 26 per cent. of the total. It may be added that in British India, with five times the population of Japan, the total cost of education to the public funds is stated to be less than this sum.

Lastly, the average cost of educating a pupil in various institutions may now be given, the whole expenditure, both regular and special, being taken into account:—*Government institutions*—higher schools, £10·7; imperial universities, £37·2; higher normal, technical, agricultural, and commercial schools, £21·6; special schools, £9·9. *Public institutions*—kindergartens, £0·5; primary, £0·6; secondary schools for boys, £6; the same for girls, £7·7; normal schools, £14·7; technical schools, £5.

592. Reference has been made elsewhere to the attempt to create school stock funds, the income from which might relieve the burden on the rates and taxes. One such fund was started in 1899 with a sum of one million sterling reserved from the Chinese Indemnity, the interest to be distributed amongst the prefectures, and lent to municipalities in aid of primary education. In 1903 the fund amounted to £137,000, of which £94,000 had been granted in loans. Another is a fund for additional salaries to elementary teachers, started in 1900, to which the National Treasury contributes £100,000 annually; this sum, together with about £50,000 paid under the preceding head, making up the "grant for primary education" referred to in the last paragraph. Besides this contribution the additional salaries fund in 1902-03 derived over £7,000 from stock fund and from prefectures, all of which when added to the previous balance made an income of £163,000; out of this £82,000 were paid in additional salaries. Then there are the school stock funds of the various local bodies, valued at £582,000 in money, and £1,024,000 in other property, chiefly connected with primary education.

The Government schools enjoy the privileges of owning property, and of retaining unexpended balances at the end of the financial year, so as to accumulate a reserve fund.

• Lastly, there are the pension funds for teachers in public schools. That for primary teachers amounted to £125,000; the income for the year was £15,000, including a grant of £4,500 from the National Treasury, and an appropriation of £3,500 out

of local rates; and the amount expended was about £13,000, divided amongst 2,645 persons. Of the pension fund for secondary and other teachers the total amount is not stated, but £6,400 were paid into the Treasury on this account, half by local bodies and half by the teachers concerned, and £4,150 were paid out to 439 persons.

Chapter XXVI.—INDIA AND JAPAN.

A fundamental difference.

593. "In a sense," says Professor Chamberlain, "Japan may be said to owe everything to India, for from India came Buddhism, and Buddhism brought civilisation; Chinese civilisation, but then China had been far more deeply tinged with the Indian dye than is generally admitted. The Japanese not only habitually underrate the influence of Buddhism in great matters; they have no adequate notion of the way in which smaller details of their lives and thoughts have been moulded by it." Mr. Chamberlain gives a few examples, such as the practice of retiring from the affairs of the world, the use of tea, the abandonment of meat, together with some influence even on the language; but a complete analysis of the debt of China and Japan to India has still to be made, requiring as it does an adequate knowledge of all three. In some cases the Indian element is obvious, in others it has been transformed until it may be as difficult to recognise as the two great Indian deities who keep ward at the gates of Buddhist temples. But the last fifty years have made Japan a debtor in a very different quarter, and it is natural at the present time to compare the phenomena presented by the mingling of East and West in India and Japan respectively, rather than to trace the influence which one may have exerted on the other in a far distant past. Here, however, the analogies which present themselves all seem to break down over one fundamental difference—the difference in the history and circumstances of the two countries. Japan possesses an energy and initiative which can hardly be predicated of India, an energy due to the race-character as acted upon, partly by climatic conditions, and partly by her whole past history. The

evolution of India is mainly artificial, due to an external and alien force; the evolution of Japan has been mainly spontaneous and natural, started no doubt by fright some 50 years ago, and spurred by the danger of Western aggression since, yet in all its details carried out by the initiative of her own people; the indigenous government having been able to effect changes (as in religion, education, vaccination, registration, etc.) which foreign rulers might not have ventured on.

594. In respect of educational achievements, it is no part of the present writer's plan to attempt an exhaustive comparison of the two countries. In the first place, India has no uniform system to compare with that of Japan, itself in constant process of change; and, in the second, a college professor has not that knowledge of educational methods and administration which would be necessary for such a task. It has been my object rather to give as accurate a picture as possible of the present situation in Japan, that those who are familiar with other systems may draw their own comparisons; and some statistical contrasts are given in the appendix. It may be remarked, however, that the indigenous system of schools, and the honoured position of the teacher, afford parallels to the indigenous arrangements of India, Chinese being substituted for Sanskrit. But the spirit of the higher schools of ancient India was more scholarly, less warlike; they were associations of students drawn from the priestly caste, and met for the study of the sacred books of their land, and in the case of the Mahomedans the atmosphere was even more religious; whereas in Japan the privileged and literary class were the warriors, not the priests. The popular schools, on the other hand, were probably very similar to the indigenous schools which the British found in Bengal and other parts, but they may have reached a larger proportion of the population. In the character of the students, again, the two countries have much in common; in both cases the pupils are on the whole diligent and well-conducted; in both cases they are gifted with wonderful powers of memory of a certain kind, which circumstances still encourage

Educational
analogies and
contrasts.

them to employ to the uttermost. But when we come to the educational systems the points of contrast are numerous, the most salient perhaps being the following :—(1) the uniformity of the Japanese system, (2) the use of the vernacular throughout as both medium and subject of instruction, (3) the formal moral teaching, (4) the prominence of compulsory physical training, (5) the obligatory attendance at schools, (6) the introduction of an entering age limit at each step, (7) the wide range of subjects prescribed or provided for, (8) the absence of colossal public examinations, (9) the absence of scholarships and prizes, (10) the absence of any extensive system of grants-in-aid, (11) the systematic organisation of technical instruction of all kinds, and (12) the expenditure.

Salient
contrasts.

595. Most of these points have been dealt with already in their appropriate places, and it is not necessary to add much here.

(1) The Japanese are a singularly homogeneous people, of the same language and the same customs, able, therefore, to enjoy the advantage of a single system in place of the multiplicity of British India.

(2) This same fact enables the one vernacular to be employed as the common medium of instruction from one end of the country, and of the course, to the other. There are, no doubt, subjects which from their nature, or because entrusted to foreign professors, have to be treated partially in foreign languages; but speaking generally, as far as possible both text-books and instruction are in the vernacular. Moreover, the pupils are drilled throughout in the use of that vernacular, in both its classical and its contemporary forms. Hence there is no complaint of a "neglect of the vernacular," and the pupils are said to cover the ground in general subjects much more quickly and thoroughly than when attempts were made to teach them in English; but, on the other hand, the command of English itself has fallen off considerably, in spite of the number of hours devoted to it.

(3) Along with the vernacular, morals (including civics and hygiene) are a uniform subject of instruction, even in technical

and professional courses ; but enough has been said on this topic already.

(4) The prominence of physical training is natural in a nation of soldiers, and is the carrying on of an old tradition ; it is already, as remarked elsewhere, producing visible effects on the physique of the race.

(5) The machinery for securing attendance during the obligatory period of 4 years (soon probably to be raised to 6) has been explained. The methods may occasionally seem lax, but with time, and patience, and hard work, they have brought about a result which can hardly be improved much further ; and the gradual rate of progress has had this advantage, that it has enabled the formidable task of providing accommodation for five million children, in a poor country, to be spread over a considerable period.

(6) The fixing of an age-limit at the entrance to each stage is an important feature, tending to secure thoroughness of work. The length of each stage is fixed, as well as the age at which it may be taken up ; the due time must be completed, and there is no means of hurrying the cleverest over the ground at double speed, nor any temptation to the teacher to devote all his energies to the cleverest. A pupil must be 10 before entering the higher primary school, 12 before entering the middle school, 17 before entering the higher school, and 19 before entering the university ; and so also with other classes of institutions. As a matter of fact, the average age for entering the university is 23, and this connects itself with the next point.

(7) The range of subjects in the schools and colleges is very considerable, and it can be so, partly because a reasonable length of time is assured for all the students, and partly because they are more mature than many in the corresponding stage in India, where children frequently present themselves for matriculation at the universities. If we take, for instance, the compulsory subjects in the Japanese secondary course, and compare them with the Bombay curriculum, we find that the vernacular, the English, the geography, the arithmetic, and the

drawing figure also in our secondary schools; the Chinese classics may be taken to correspond to our "second language," the Japanese and Chinese history to our Indian history.* But the universal history has only bits of English history at school, and either Greek or Roman history at college, to correspond to it; the algebra and plane geometry^a are with us completed at college; the trigonometry comes in the second year of our college course; of the physics and chemistry our schools do a very little; and morals, solid geometry, zoology, botany, mineralogy, singing, and drill do not figure in our course as compulsory subjects at all. Or if we take the compulsory subjects in the literary section of the Japanese higher school and compare them with our college course, we have the English (and that at least of a higher standard), we have a "classical language" corresponding to the Chinese classics, we have Indian history, in the third and fourth years, corresponding to the Japanese and Chinese history, we have the logic and political economy in our second, third, or fourth years; against the general history we have to set either Greek or Roman history and a fragment of English; but the morals, the vernacular, the German or French (as a third language), the psychology, the elements of law, and the drill do not figure in our curriculum at all. Or coming to the university courses provided at the college of literature, Tokyo, where in Bombay shall we find provision for the study of anthropology, the science of religion, æsthetics, sociology, psychology, philology, geography, general European history, historical methodology, the history of Oriental philosophy, Hindu philosophy, recent history, pedagogics, the history of education, French and German literature, and vernacular literature, or even a recognition of the existence of most of them? Scraps of philosophy or history may be introduced into our curricula, but there is little attempt to deal with their branches systematically, and such teaching as is available is given in odd hours which the "professors" can spare from their primary functions. Even so, many a candidate gets his master's degree on one year's work, where Japan requires three. These remarks are made

partly to justify the previous treatment of the Japanese higher schools as equal to our colleges, partly to show the ambitious character of the programme undertaken by the Japanese universities. It may, of course, be said that the Japanese were unnecessarily ambitious in framing a programme which should cover the whole of human knowledge; that for many of these subjects there are few or no students; that the standard attained in some of them is not high; and that the money at this early stage might have been better spent. Yet, whether the professors have pupils or not, it is admitted that many of them have already done excellent work on their own account, and on the whole it is probable that more gain than loss has resulted from the ambitious scale on which the premier university of Japan has gone to work.

(8) On the subject of examinations much has been said already. The Japanese system, at any rate, leaves an able teacher a delightful freedom; he teaches what he likes, and examines on it as he likes. It has not, however, done away with cramming, and in the hands of indifferent teachers no doubt may degenerate into mere routine, and that of a slovenly order, there being no external check. A good deal of fuss is still made about examinations on the part of candidates, but on the whole the tendency is to discourage the attaching of excessive importance to them, and in the lowest grades they have been discontinued altogether.

(9) Connected with this desire to minimise competition and pressure is the comparative absence of the whole apparatus of scholarships and prizes. Scholarships there are, but comparatively few in number, and always of the nature of a loan, to be repaid after graduation, so that they are an assistance to the needy, rather than a reward for brilliance, and can be worked with a small capital supplied out of the school funds, or by a few generous donors. But whilst scholarships are scanty, a great deal of assistance is afforded to students by private individuals in ways already indicated. Prizes are also few in number. The best pupil in the class is excused his fee, the

best graduates at the university receive watches from the Emperor; but otherwise prizes are limited to small gifts of pens, paper, or books to young children in some of the schools.

(10) The absence of any system of grants-in-aid, except to a certain extent in connection with technical education, is in marked contrast with India, where the majority of "public" institutions are really under private management, but aided by Government. In Japan, on the contrary, 94 per cent. of the schools are under the management of public authorities, national or local.

(11) Technical instruction is provided for on a comprehensive scale in all of its branches, and especially in agriculture, commerce, and industry, and in all grades, from elementary to advanced; whereas in India agricultural schools are said to attract the wrong pupils, industrial schools to be in an unsatisfactory condition, and commercial education scarcely to exist except in rudimentary forms. But, as indicated elsewhere, technical education in Japan also languished until industrial and commercial openings came with a rush, until men were willing to put their money into new undertakings and to employ school-trained subordinates.

(12) Lastly, the expenditures of the two countries are in strong contrast. Setting aside private institutions, for which no information is at hand, the national and local authorities of Japan spend on education at least 5 millions sterling; whereas in British India, with more than five times the population, the total expenditure, public and private, is stated to be less than £2,700,000, and the cost to the public revenues less than £1,300,000. If the expenditure were proportionate to the population, it would be at least 27 millions. The expenditure of Japan is combined with marvellous cheapness to the student, who escapes the considerable examination fees which the Indian student has to provide, and for the highest courses in Government institutions is required to pay only from 50 to 70 shillings a year, as against £8 in the Government college at Bombay and nearly £10 at Calcutta; whilst in equipment, and in the

number and training of the staff, the Japanese institutions leave little to be desired.

596. This expenditure from the public funds, lavish in the case of a poor country compelled to spend freely at the same time in other directions, has been rendered possible by the general interest taken in education. "All classes," remarks Dr. Dyer, "were quick in perceiving that from a personal and national point of view it was their duty to equip themselves in such a manner that they might be able efficiently to discharge the duties which the new conditions would place upon them." Education is further encouraged by the fact that the diploma of a middle school not only carries considerable weight in itself, but also secures military privileges which are prized. There was a period during which some lukewarmness was shown locally in such matters as the education of girls, the training of teachers, the provision of an adequate inspecting staff; but this has passed away, and all classes seem to concur in making provision for every form of instruction, whilst one is told everywhere that the children *insist* on going to school. "Through languages which she has not mastered," writes Mr. Lewis,* "Japan has struggled with ideas which she has not made her own. But Japanese educators have accomplished what experts at the outset thought impossible, despite the poverty, ignorance, and low ideals of the people, the annual shortage of thousands in the teaching force, the proud attempt to provide an entirely non-religious moral philosophy, and the ambition to cover the whole realm of human investigation. The Chinese and the Hindu, intellectually equal, are not as yet to be compared to the Japanese in general educational progress. The young Japanese people, hungered of learning, have literally fed upon the erudition of the West until it has begun to grow into their bone and sinew." Her political and military achievements in the past have imposed heavy financial burdens upon her, diminishing the supply of money for educational purposes; the present war is

Public interest
in education

* *Educational Conquest of the Far East*, page 90.

likely to do so even more effectually. Everywhere the same tale was heard, of buildings suspended, teachers dismissed, and expenditure in general retrenched. It is true that the Emperor is reported to have urged, at the university graduation ceremony, that the war should not be allowed to interfere with education ; but His Majesty did not indicate any solution of the time-honoured problem of both consuming your cake and continuing to possess it. It can hardly be but that educational expansion will be seriously crippled for a time. Nevertheless, as the war, with China was followed by an unparalleled outburst of energetic development, so we may hope that it will be on the present occasion, this long and sanguinary conflict being followed by a renewed era of growth and prosperity for the schools and colleges of Japan.

APPENDIX I.

Rules for the recognition of Schools, Public or Private.

1. When a school, public or private, wishes to be recognized by the Minister of Education as equal to, or higher than, the Government middle schools in respect of the rules for military service, or those for the appointment of civil officials, its director or other representative must submit a petition, together with the following information :—history of the school ; its regulations ; the career of the director or other representative ; names, qualifications, careers, and subjects taught, of the instructors ; the fixed number and class organization of the pupils ; the number and present circumstances of the graduates ; the plan of the buildings and dormitories ; the expenditure, and how met ; text-books in use ; list of apparatus and specimens.
2. To be recognized a school must have trustworthy means of support and administration, competent teachers, and adequate equipment ; it must also come under one of the following categories :—
 - (a) In the case of special schools, those who enter them must be graduates of middle schools, or have passed the examination mentioned in the rules for special schools, or have completed the preparatory course of such a school.
 - (b) In the case of technical schools, they must have a course of study equal to, or higher than, that of technical schools of class A, and longer than 3 years.
 - (c) In the case of other schools, the course of study, rules for entrance, organization, and equipment shall be similar to those of middle schools, and more than one-third of the instructors shall be licensed as middle school instructors.
3. If the Minister for Education, or the local governor, thinks fit, he shall direct his chief inspector to attend the entrance examination of the school, or to examine the entrance papers, and such inspector may order the conduct of the examination or the papers to be changed, if he deems them unsuitable.
4. When any recognized school desires to make a change in its regulations, number of students, ground, buildings, ways and means of support, or in its representative, a petition shall be submitted to the Minister. With regard to other matters to be communicated to the Minister, or approved by him, the rules for middle schools shall be observed.
5. (Specified articles of the Ordinances for middle schools are to apply to recognized schools.)
6. If students who do not come under rule 2 are admitted, a special name shall be given to them and a special list made of them.
7. In July every year the director of the school shall inform the Minister of the following matters as they stood on the 30th of June :—the names, qualifications, and subjects taught, of the director and instructors ; the number and classes of the students ; the number of the graduates of the previous year and their present

circumstances; the number of students newly admitted; the details of the expenditure for the current year; text-books in use.

8. If a recognized school is considered to be violating these provisions, or not securing good results, the recognition may be withdrawn.

9. The documents to be submitted to the Minister shall be sent through the local governor, who shall append his own opinion after close examination.

APPENDIX II.

Specimens of Examination Papers.

Several examples of examination papers have been given in the body of the report. A few more are appended here.

HIGHER SCHOOL GRADUATION PAPERS.

I. Translation from English into Japanese (for the English Law and Literature section).

1. It is in the novel that, in this country, the faculty of observing social man and his peculiarities has found its most popular instrument.

2. In stillness Talent forms itself, but Character in the great current of the world.

3. All confidence is dangerous, unless it is complete; there are few circumstances in which it is not best either to hide all or to tell all.

4. Yet, as a faithful presentation of human selfishness, and of you and me in so far as we happen to be mainly selfish, the odious mirror has its uses, by showing us what manner of men we are or may become.

5. No movement can be more wisely democratic than one which seeks to give to the northern miner or the London artisan knowledge as good and as accurate, though he may not have so much of it, as if he were a student at Oxford or Cambridge.

II. Mathematics (for Engineering, Science and Agriculture section).

1. State the Mean-value theorem, and prove it.

2. Find the evolute of the parabola.

3. Mention how we find the integral of $\frac{f(x)}{(x^2+px+q)^r}$ where $f(x)$ is a rational integral function, and $p^2 < 4q$.

4. Deduce the Simpson's rule.

5. Find the length of the cycloid.

III. Dynamics (for the same section).

1. Find the equations of motion of the centre of mass of a body.

2. A uniform ladder just rests with one end on the horizontal ground, the other leaning against a vertical wall. If θ be the angle it makes with the ground, prove that $\tan \theta = \frac{1-\mu\mu'}{2\mu}$ where μ and μ' are the co-efficients of friction respectively.

3. A sphere of mass M and radius a rolls without sliding along a rough inclined plane of inclination α to the horizon. Find the acceleration of the centre, and the amount of friction called into play.

4. Two equal uniform rods AB and AC , each of weight π and length l , are freely jointed at A , and are placed across a smooth horizontal cylinder of radius a . Find the inclination of the rod to the horizon, the pressure on the cylinder, and the stress at the joint, when the system is in equilibrium.

IV. Physics (for the same section).

1. Explain the meaning of the following terms:—mechanical equivalent of heat, magnetic meridian, astatic needle.

2. State chief differences between

(a) common light and polarized light.

(b) musical notes produced by closed and open pipes.

(c) lights emitted by solid, liquid, and gaseous bodies in incandescent state.

(No explanation required.)

3. Explain differences between free oscillation and forced oscillation.

4. Explain by wave theory the fact that thin transparent films are in general coloured.

V. Chemistry (for the same section).

1. Point out chief differences in properties between phenols and alcohols.

2. State briefly the relations among the ionization tendency, chemical property, and state of occurrence in nature, of common metals.

3. Define poly-saccharide, nitro-compound, amido-compound, azo-compound, and alkaloid, giving an example or two of each.

4. Describe about the following:—carbolic acid, tannin, hæmoglobine, caffeine, nicotine, egg-albumen, diastase, anthracene, aniline, nitrocellulose.

A PRIVATE UNIVERSITY.—ENTRANCE PAPERS IN ENGLISH.

A. 1. Write a short composition in English such as you may finish in an hour on any one of the subjects following:—

Boat-race.

Osaka Exhibition.

The Globe.

2. State in full—in English—what you think of the following expressions:—

(a) He singed a song.

(b) He had come home only when I wait him for an hour.

(c) He told to a large crowds of people between two and half a hour.

3. Render the following into English:—

(Five lines of Japanese.)

B. Translation.

1. A man conducts himself abroad as he has been taught at home.

2. A man should never be ashamed to own that he has been in the wrong; it is but saying, "I am wiser to-day than yesterday."

3. False ideals of dignity are very inimical to effective bodily exercise. A foolish notion that it is more dignified to be seen in a carriage than on horseback has deprived all French ecclesiastics of the use of the saddle.

4. Dr. Alcott, the celebrated author of a former generation, was wont to address young people as well as to write books for them. One of his frequent remarks was, "Keep your eyes open!" by which he meant, be on the alert to observe things cultivate the faculty of observation.

APPENDIX III.

Statistics.

Table 1.—Area and Population.

	Area in sq. miles.	Population in millions.
Madras	141,800	38.25
Bombay	188,800	25.50
Bengal	165,000	76.75
United Provinces	107,000	47.75
British India	1,074,000	240.50
Japan	147,000	46

Table 2.—Cities, towns and villages.

	Japan.	British India.
Number of cities, towns, and villages	14,580	574,006
Number of schools	30,420	104,622
Average number of towns, etc., served by one school	0.48	5.5

Table 3.—Proportion of pupils to total school-going population.

	Japan.	British India.
Male pupils per cent.	91	19
Female "	68	2.2
Total "	79	10.7

N. B.—The population of Japan is here taken as 46 millions, equally divided between the sexes, and (as in India) the school-going population is taken as 15 per cent. of the total.

Table 4.—Schools, Teachers, and Pupils, by management.

	Schools.	Teachers.	Pupils.	Cost.
Government	42	1,399	18,562	£322,415
Public	28,583	117,195	5,292,611	£4,449,000
Private	1,795	8,835	182,431
Total	30,420	127,429	5,493,604

N. B.—In Japan 94 per cent. of schools are under public management and 6 per cent. under private; in India, of so-called public institutions 21 per cent. are under public management, 60 per cent. are under private management but aided, and 19 per cent. are unaided. The fringe of so-called private institutions is here neglected throughout.

Table 5.—Schools, Teachers, and Pupils by Class.

	Schools.	Teachers.	Pupils.
Kindergartens	263	726	24,185
Elementary	27,154	109,118	5,135,487
Middle	258	4,681	95,027
Girls' higher	80	1,173	21,523
Higher	8	301	4,781
Imperial universities	2	349	4,046
Training	68	1,217	20,004
Special	58	1,437	20,711
Technical	853	2,780	60,008
Blind, etc.	17	101	1,063
Miscellaneous	1,657	5,546	106,169
Total	30,420	127,429	5,493,604

Table 6.—Pupils by sexes.

	Males	Females
Kindergartens	12,744	11,440
Primary	2,873,043	2,256,053
Secondary	95,026	21,523
Higher	4,781
Imperial universities	4,046
Training	16,605	3,848
Special	19,978	725
Technical	51,871	8,118
Blind, etc.	750	313
Miscellaneous	55,355	50,425
Total	3,134,199	2,352,445
British India	3,493,325	393,168

Table 7.—Number of persons of school-going age, of whom ten are under instruction.

	Japan.	British India.
Boys	11	50
Girls	14	450

Table 8.—Table of various ratios extracted from the foregoing.

	Total population per school.	Total population per pupil.	School-going population per pupil.	Percentage of total pupils.
Primary	1,694	9.1	1.3	93.5
Middle	178,294	484	72	1.7
Girls'	575,000	2,137	320	0.4
Higher	5,750,000	9,621	1,443	0.09
Imperial universities	23,000,000	11,369	1,705	0.07
Training	676,470	2,232	335	0.37
Technical	53,927	766	115	1.1

Table 9.—Inspection.

	Japan.	British India.
Total Inspectors	784	1,675
Average area in square miles to each	186	641
Average population	60,000	143,000
Average number of scholars	6,930	2,320
Total cost of direction and inspection	£122,000 ⁽¹⁾	£170,000
Average cost per scholar	£0.022 ⁽²⁾	£0.044

Table 10.—Kindergartens.

	Govern- ment.	Public.	Private.	Total.
Kindergartens	1	183	79	263
Teachers	6	531	189	726
Children	167	19,274	4,743	24,184
Teachers per kindergarten	6	2.9	2.4	2.75
Children per kindergarten	167	105	60	92
Children per teacher	28	36	24	33
Number of towns and villages to 1 kindergarten	...	55
Number of children of school-going age to 1 child in a kindergarten	...	285

Table 11.—Primary schools.

	Schools.	Teachers.	Pupils.
Government	2	40	1,076
Public	26,827	107,977	5,082,475
Private	325	1,101	51,936
Total	27,154	109,118	5,135,487
British India	97,854	106,432*	3,564,282

* In boys' schools only; the other two figures include girls as well as boys.

Table 12.—Primary schools, compared with India.

	Japan.	British India.
Number of towns and villages to 1 school	0.53	6.2
Average number of pupils	189	33
Average daily attendance per cent.	88	77
Teachers per school	4	1.23
Pupils per teacher	47	26
Percentage of trained teachers	30 (?)	18
Number of children of school-going age, of whom 1 was in the primary stage	1.3	10.6

Monthly pay of teachers—

Japan, from Re. 1.5 to Rs. 112.5; India, from Rs. 3 to Rs. 65.

Table 13.—Middle schools.

	Schools.	Teachers.	Pupils.
Government	1	28	331
Public	221	3,919	79,053
Private	36	734	15,643
Total	258	4,681	95,027
British India	3,097*	?	222,760†

* English secondary schools.

† Pupils in the secondary stage in such schools.

Table 14.—Middle schools, compared with India.

	Japan.	British India.
Average number of pupils	368	136
Teachers per school	20	6 (?)
Pupils per teacher	20	21 (?)
Number of boys of school-going age, of whom 1 was in the secondary stage	36	82

Monthly pay of teachers—

Japan, from Rs. 22·5 to Rs. 250; India, from Rs. 3 to Rs. 550.

Table 15.—Higher schools, compared with Indian Arts colleges.

	Japan.	British India.
Institutions	8	140
Teachers	301	1,018
Students	4,781	17,148
Students per school	597	122
Teachers per school	97	9
Students per teacher	16	17
Number of boys of school-going age, of whom 1 is here	721	1,079

Table 16.—Imperial Universities.

	Teachers.	Students.	Graduates.
Tokyo	256	3,405	727
Kyoto	93	641	41
Total	349	4,046	768

Table 17.—Imperial University of Tokyo.

College.	Teachers.	Students.	Graduates.
Law	32	1,097	142
Medicine	38	526	251
Engineering	60	468	118
Literature	46	325	72
Science	32	88	12
Agriculture	48	370	88
University Hall	...	531	44

Table 18.—Technical schools, by management.

	Schools.	Teachers.	Pupils.
Government ..	5*	215	2,220
Public ..	795	2,260	53,508
Private ..	51	293	4,088
Total ...	851	2,768	59,816

* Institutions not yet in full working order being omitted.

Table 19.—Public and private technical schools, by class.

	Schools.	Teachers.	Pupils.
Agricultural*	96	722	9,454
Fishery, etc.	6	29	393
Commercial ..	50	665	11,370
Industrial ..	25	277	2,590
Apprentices'	33	192	2,192
Nautical ..	7	51	715
Supplementary ..	629	617	30,882
Total ...	846	2,553	57,956

* Including sericulture, veterinary science, and forestry.

Table 20.—Public and private technical schools of intermediate or lower grade, with their expenditure.

N. B.—These figures, taken from a different source, do not always tally with the foregoing, and may refer to a later date.

	Schools.	Pupils.	Cost	Government aid.
Agricultural A	57	7,146	£ 103,170	£ 11,009
" B	49	2,701	15,443	
Commercial A	41	9,882	61,130	
" B	17	1,488	4,839	5,321
Industrial ..	25	2,590	50,870	6,233
Apprentices'	32	2,192	12,580	2,923
Nautical A	7	715	8,341	1,382
Supplementary				
Agricultural ..	503	22,933		
Commercial ..	82	4,880		
Industrial ..	43	3,042	17,556	1,657
Nautical ..	1	26		
Total ...	857	57,595	273,929	28,525

Table 21.—Professional and technical education, compared with India.

N. B.—Supplementary technical schools are omitted.

	Japan.	British India.
Law schools and colleges	17	35
" students	11,617	2,808
Medical schools and colleges	18	26
" students	4,538	4,193
Engineering schools, etc.	5*	24
" students	1,307*	1,906
Agricultural schools, etc.†	98	136
" students‡	10,160	650
Fishery schools	6
" students	393
Commercial schools	51	?
" students	14,327	?
Industrial schools‡	58	84
" students‡	4,782	4,977
Nautical schools	7
" students	715
Art schools	1	4
" students	324	1,220

* Incomplete.

† Including veterinary science and forestry.

‡ Including apprentices' schools.

Table 22.—Special schools, by management.

	Schools.	Teachers.	Pupils.
Government	8	241	3,751
Public	4	79	1,567
Private	46	1,124	15,393
Total	58	1,444	20,711

Table 23.—Girls' higher schools.

	Schools.	Teachers.	Pupils.
Government	1	13	219
Public	72	1,052	19,185
Private	7	108	2,019
Total	80	1,173	21,523
British India	461	?	9,810

Table 24.—Girls' higher schools, compared with India.

	Japan.	British India.
Average number of pupils	269	21
Teachers per school	14	?
Pupils per teacher	18	?
Number of girls of school-going age, of whom 1 was in the secondary stage	160	1,810

Table 25.—Teachers.

	Male.	Female.	Foreigners.
Kindergartens	726
Primary	91,650	17,468
Middle	4,681	34
Girls'	420	753	2
Higher	301	25
Imperial universities	349	18
Normal	938	93	2
Higher normal	?	?	3
Technical	2,656	124	39
Special	1,416	21	75
Blind and dumb	76	25	2
Miscellaneous	3,759	1,788	350
Total	106,246	20,988	550

Table 26.—The Training of Teachers

	Japan.	British India.
Institutions for males	57	110
Male pupils	16,606	4,384
Institutions for females	33	51
Female pupils	3,848	1,383
Total expenditure	Rs. 49,16,515*	Rs. 8,02,508

* Incomplete.

Table 27.—Total Educational Expenditure.

N. B.—In this and the following tables Japanese institutions under other Departments than that of education are ignored, and only the Government and local expenditure is taken into account, whereas the Indian figures include private expenditure as well.

	Japan.	British India.
	Rs.	Rs.
Total expenditure	7,82,25,000	4,01,21,000
" " per 1,000 of population	1,695	167

Table 28.—Educational expenditure by sources.

	Japan	British India.
	Rs	Rs.
Government	1,06,50,000	1,03,91,000
Local bodies	5,44,65,000	87,14,000
Fees	77,10,000	1,26,88,000
Others	54,00,000	83,28,000

Table 29.—Percentage of educational expenditure on total expenditure

	Japan.	British India (net).
Government	27	5.3
Municipal	32.7	25.3
Other local bodies	17.0	7.0

Table 30.—Percentages of various expenditures on total educational expenditure.

	Japan.	British India.
Primary education	60.6*	29.60†
Secondary "	11.9	31.59
Higher "	3.8†	11.40‡
Training schools	6.1	1.79
Other special schools	5.8§	3.89
Direction and inspection	2.3(7)	6.35
Buildings¶	26	5.59

* Includes kindergartens.

† Higher schools and imperial universities.

‡ Arts and professional colleges and university charges.

§ Schools of a technical character.

¶ The preceding figures for Japan include buildings.

Table 31.—Average annual cost of educating a pupil.

	Japan.	British India.
	Rs.	Rs.
Kindergartens
Primary	9	37
Middle	9	44
Girls'	90	24
Higher	115	151 (Arts)
Imperial universities	160	234 (Profl.)
Higher normal, agricultural, commercial and technical	557
Normal	324
Technical, secondary*	226	131
" elementary	165	...
" supplementary	52	63*
" supplementary	85

* Industrial schools.

Table 32.—Average annual fee incidence per pupil in public schools.

	Japan.	British India.
	Rs.	Rs.
Kindergartens
Primary	4.8	1.0
Middle	0.9	12.9
Girls'	19.2	12.2
Technical	13.3
Technical	4.2

N. B.—In the Government higher schools and colleges of Japan the annual tuition fee is commonly Rs. 37; in India the average annual fee in Arts colleges is Rs. 57.

Table 33.—Annual expenditure of Government schools.

	Yen.
2 Imperial universities	1,557,756
3 Higher normal	248,736
1 Higher agricultural	75,221
1 Higher commercial	82,440
2 Higher technical	235,741
8 Higher	511,289
5 Special medical	200,271
3 Other special	171,084
Others	172,391
Total Yen	3,254,929 or Rs. 48,82,393

Table 34.—Local income and expenditure, by schools.

	Income.	Expenditure.	Average cost per school.	
			Japan.	India.
	Yen.	Yen.	Rs.	Rs.
Kindergartens ...	36,369	104,321	855	...
Primary ...	6,033,898	31,502,005	1,761	114
Middle ...	1,106,100	4,740,026	32,172	3,115
Girls' ...	201,354	1,490,751	31,057	3,877
Normal ...	54,940	2,869,651	74,884	...
Technical, secondary ...	399,987	2,183,143	25,785	...
" elementary ...	92,229	352,672	3,495	...
" supplementary ...	44,728	170,289	300	...
Others ...	204,299	1,073,914
Total ...	8,173,904	44,487,372

Table 35.—Income of local schools, by sources.

	Yen.
Fees ..	4,721,757
Gifts ..	1,598,829
School stock property ..	509,306
National Treasury ..	268,251
Miscellaneous ...	1,075,761
Total ...	8,173,904

Table 36.—Expenditure of local schools, by objects.

	Yen
Salaries ..	22,350,519
Travelling ...	577,376
Pupils' expenses ..	1,216,597
Rent ..	348,915
Furniture, books and apparatus ..	3,141,612
Articles of consumption ..	1,765,137
Buildings ..	10,888,066
Repairs ...	1,277,615
Miscellaneous ...	2,921,535
Total ...	44,487,372

APPENDIX IV.

Specimen Time-tables.

N. B.—In every case the figures denote the number of hours devoted to the subject per week.

1.—Ordinary primary school.

	1st year.	2nd year.	3rd year.	4th year.
Morals	2	2	2	2
Japanese	10	12	15	15
Arithmetic	5	6	6	6
Gymnastics	4	4	4	4
Drawing
Singing
Sewing
Manual work
Total	21	24	27	27

N. B.—If one or more of the extra subjects be added, not more than 4 hours may be deducted from those otherwise appropriated.

2.—Higher primary school

	1st year.	2nd year.	3rd year.	4th year.
Morals	2	2	2	2
Japanese	10	10	10	10
Arithmetic	4	4	4	4
Japanese history and geography	3	3	3	3
Science	2	2	2	2
Drawing { Boys	2	2	2	2
{ Girls	1	1	1	1
Singing	2	2	2	2
Gymnastics	3	3	3	3
Sewing	3	3	3	3
Manual work
Agriculture
Commerce
English
Total { Boys	28	28	28	28
{ Girls	30	30	30	30

N. B.—If one or more of the extra subjects be added, not more than 2 hours may be deducted from those otherwise appropriated; and 2 extra hours may be added, for boys exclusively.

3.—Middle school.

	1st year.	2nd year.	3rd year.	4th year.	5th year.
Morals	1	1	1	1	1
Japanese and Chinese	7	7	7	6	6
Foreign languages	6	6	7	7	7
History	3	3	3	3	3
Geography	3	3	3	3	3
Mathematics	4	4	4	4	4
Natural history	2	2	2	2, 2, 1	..
Physics and chemistry	3, 3, 4	4
Law and economics	2
Drawing	1	1	1	1	1
Singing	1	1	1
Gymnastics	3	3	3	3	3
Total ...	28	28	29	30	30

N. B.—If law and economics be omitted, the hours shall be given to foreign languages, history and geography; if singing be omitted, its hours shall be given to drawing. One hour may be given to drawing in the 5th year, if desired by the pupils; and 3 hours more can be added to gymnastics.

4.—Girls' higher school.

	1st year.	2nd year.	3rd year.	4th year.
Morals	1	1	1	1
Japanese	2	2	2	2
Foreign language	6	6	5	5
History	3	3	3	3
Geography	3	3	3	3
Mathematics	2	2	2	2
Natural history	2	2	2	1
Drawing	1	1	1	1
Household management	2	2
Sewing	4	4	4	4
Music	2	2	2	2
Gymnastics	3	3	3	3
Education
Manual work
Total ...	29	29	29	29

N. B.—If pedagogics be added to the curriculum, 2 hours may be taken from the time given to Japanese in the last year; for manual work (knitting, embroidery, etc.) hours may be taken from the time allotted to sewing. If the foreign language is omitted, the hours assigned to it may be used for any other purpose.

5.—Male normal school.

	1st year.	2nd year.	3rd year.	4th year.
Morals	2	2	2	2
Pedagogics	2	2	3	17
Japanese	4	2	2	...
Chinese	...	2	2	2
History	2	2	2	...
Geography	2	2	1	...
Mathematics	4	4	3	2
Physics and chemistry	2	2	3	2
Natural history	3	2	2	...
Writing	2	2	1	...
Drawing	2	2	2	1
Music	1	1	2	2
Gymnastics	6	6	6	3
English
Agriculture
Commerce
Manual work
Total	32	31	31	31

N. B.—If one of the extra subjects is taken, 2 hours are devoted to it in the first year, and 3 in each of the others.

6.—Female normal school.

	1st year.	2nd year.	3rd year.	
			1st half.	2nd half.
Morals	2	2	2	2
Pedagogics	2	2	4	29
Japanese	4	3	3	...
Chinese	2	2	2	...
History	2	2	2	...
Geography	2	2	1	...
Mathematics	3	3	2	...
Science	2	3	3	...
Household management	6	6	6	...
Writing	2	2	2	...
Drawing	2	2	2	...
Music	2	2	2	...
Gymnastics	3	3	3	3
Total	34	34	34	34

7.—Higher normal school.

The higher normal school of Tokyo is divided into a number of sections, each of which has its own time-table; as an example, the table of the English language section is given here.

	1st year.	2nd year.	3rd year (2 terms).
Morals	2	2	2
Psychology and pedagogics	2	3	5
Japanese and Chinese	3	2
English	15	15	13
History	2	3
Philosophy	2
Science of language	3
Gymnastics	3	3	2
Total	27	28	27

N. B.—German or French, and music, optional. The 3rd term of the 3rd year is devoted to practical work.

8.—Higher schools

The higher schools are also divided into a number of sections, with all sorts of variations in subjects and times; as an example, the time-table of the Law and Literature section is given here.

	1st year.	2nd year.	3rd year.
Morals	1
Japanese and Chinese	6	5	4
English	9	9	8
German	9	9	8
French	9	9	8
History	3	3	3
Logic and psychology	2
Principles of law	2
Political economy	2
Gymnastics	3	3	3
Total	30	31	29-31

N. B.—Of the 3 European languages, 2 must be taken; Latin may also be added. The political economy is for literature students only; and the table is subject to a number of modifications.

9.—*An apprentices' school (lacquer-work).*

	1st year.	2nd year.	3rd year.
•Morals ...	1	1	1
•Reading ...	2	2	2
•Composition ...	1	1	1
•Arithmetic ...	3	3	2
•Physics and chemistry ...	2	2	2
•History of lacquer	1	1	1
•Lacquering ...	1	1	1
•Foundation ...	1	1	1
•Drawing ...	6	6	6
•Practice ...	22	22	22
Total ...	39	39	39

10.—*An art and industrial school*

	1st year.	2nd year.	3rd year.	4th year
Morals ...	1	1	1	1
•Reading ...	2	2		
•Composition ...	2	2		
•English ...	1	1	2	2
•Mathematics ...	3	2	2	
•Physics ...	2	2		
•Chemistry ...	2	2	3	
•Applied æsthetics ...			2	2
•Designing ...			3	4
•Drawing ...	2	2		
•Painting ...	10	10	8	4
•Industrial economy ...				1
•Industrial book-keeping ...				1
•Gymnastics ...	2	2	2	2
•Practical work (wood, metal, or lacquer) ...	60	18	21	27
Total ...	43	44	44	44

11.—An agricultural school of class A.

	1st year.	2nd year.	3rd year.
Morals	1	1	1
Reading and composition	3	2	2
English	2	2	2
History and geography	2	2
Mathematics	3	3	3
Physics	3	1
Chemistry	2	2	2
Natural science	5	3
Soils	1	1
Civil engineering	1	2
Manures	2
Crops	2	2	2
Horticulture	2
Zoochemistry	2	2
Sericulture	3	1
Vegetable pathology	2	2
Political and agricultural economy laws and regulations
Forestry	2
Veterinary medicine	2
Drawing	1	1
Gymnastics	2	2	2
Total	30	30	30

Practical work (no fixed hours).

12.—A higher agricultural school, principal course.

	1st year.	2nd year.	3rd year.
Morals	1	1
Mathematics	3
Physics and meteorology	2
Chemistry	3	3	4
Zoology	2	3
Botany	2	3	3
Geology and soils	2
English or German	4	4	4
Cultivation of crops	3	3	4
Zootechny	4	2
Sericulture	3
Manures	2
Agricultural implements	1
Amelioration of soils	2
Horticulture	2	2
Preparation of products	3	2
Political economy, agricultural politics, etc.	3
Outlines of forestry	2	2
Surveying and drawing	5
Gymnastics	2
Total	30	30	31

Farm practice (no fixed hours).

13.—A commercial school of class A.

	1st year.	2nd year.	3rd year.
Morals	2	2
Japanese	6	3	1
Mathematics	5	4	.
Commercial geography and history	4
Physics and chemistry	4
Book-keeping	3	4	4
Political economy and statistics	..	3	3
Commercial products	2
General principles of commerce and practice	2	2	8
Law	4
English	8	8	9
Gymnastics	3	3	3
Total	33	33	34

14.—A higher commercial school, preparatory course.

One year.

Commercial morality	1
Penmanship	1
Composition	2
Mathematics	3
Book-keeping	3
Applied physics	1
Applied chemistry	3
Principles of law	2
Principles of political economy	1
English	9
Second foreign language	3
Gymnastics	3
Total	32

15.—A higher commercial school, principal course.

	1st year.	2nd year.	3rd year.
Commercial morality	1
" correspondence	1
" arithmetic	2	3
" geography	2	2
" history	3
Book-keeping	2	2	1
Mechanical engineering	1
Merchandise	3
Political economy	3	3	3
Finance	2
Statistics	1
Private law	3	3	3
Bankrupt law	1
Commercial administrative law	1
International law	2
English	6	6	6
Second foreign language	3	3	3
Theory of commerce	2	7
Practice in commerce	5
Gymnastics	3	2
Total	32	32	30

INDEX.

(N. B.—The numbers refer to the paragraphs and not to the pages.)

A

	Paragraphs
Aborigines; Schools for	62, 436 <i>et seq</i>
Academic year	222
Academy: Tokyo, 77; of Music, Tokyo	385, 387
Adams, Will.	502
Administrative divisions	43
Admission of candidates: Rules for,	
in colleges, 223; in higher schools	202, 203
in middle schools	161
Age of admission into,	
Agricultural schools	314, 315
Apprentices' schools	366
Commercial schools	346, 347, 349
Higher schools	202
Middle schools	161, 166
Technical schools	297, 298
Women's University	427
Age-limits and length of course	55
Age, school	99, 595
Ages of children in primary schools	121
Agricultural, education, 311; schools, 60, 61, 314-316, 387; subjects	266
Agriculture: 127; college of, 218; crops, 304; effect produced on, 312; effort to improve it, 310; implements of, 304, 312; its present condition	304
Ainu: an aboriginal tribe, 437; customs and manners, 437; education, 438, 439; occupation	437
Apprentices' schools: 366, 367, 368; age of candidates for admission, 366; expenditure on, 366; length of the course in	366, 367
Aquatic industries	334
Architecture	386
Area: of Japan, 42; and population	Appendix III, Table 1
Arinori Mori, Mr., founder of the Tokyo Higher Commercial School	351
Arithmetic in primary schools	125
Art education: institutions for	383
Associations, educational: 568; criticisms on, 570; extracts from rules, 569; of students, 543. <i>See also</i> Societies.	

	Paragraph
Aston, Mr., on the literary work of the Japanese women	...
Attendance of pupils : machinery employed for securing it, 100 ; means of improving, 101 ; obligatory in primary schools, 99 ; regularity and punctuality in	...

B

Backward classes : Schools for	...
Batchelor, Revd. J., a missionary among the Ainu	...
Bifurcation of Studies : in middle schools	...
Blind : Schools for, 390. <i>See also</i> Defectives.	...
Board of Education	...
Boarding houses : attached to higher schools, 200 ; middle schools, 158 ; normal schools	...
Boarding schools	...
Bombay : Higher school course in Japan compared with, 207 ; primary school course, 130 ; secondary school course	...
Botanical : Collections, in higher schools, 199 ; gardens	...
Buddhism	...
Buildings : <i>See</i> School buildings.	...
<i>Bushi</i> : a Japanese Knight	...
<i>Bushido</i> : a Japanese Code of feudal ethics, 9 ; religion of the upper classes	...

C

Caste system in Japan	...
Cement factory	...
Census of school population	...
Certificates of good conduct, etc.	...
Chamberlain, Professor, on the Japanese traditions	...
Chinese characters	...
Chinese language, study of	...
<i>Choshu</i> : name of a leading clan in Japan	...
Christianity in Japan, introduction of	...
Cities, towns and villages : number of	43. Appendix III, Table 1
Civil Service Examinations	...
Clark, Dr. William, starts the agricultural school at Sapporo	...
Class : "Captains," 163 ; management, 165 ; size of a	...
Climate of Japan	...
Co-education in primary schools	...
College, of Agriculture, Tokyo :	...
of Engineering	...
of Literature	...
of Law	...
of Medicine	...
of Science	...

	Paragraphs
Colleges: courses of study in, 227; daily life of students in, 226; directors in, 221; examinations, 228; relative popularity, 218; organization in 221	
Commercial Academy at Nagoya, 349; education, 61; rise of, 342; institutions, 345-350; schools, 61, 387; popular attitude towards them, 343; subjects, 127, 296; system, indigenous to Japan, 341; training of students in America and Belgium 344	
Committees, educational 77	
Compulsory education 50	
Conferences: educational, 571; of inspectors .. . 85	
Confucian classics: their leading doctrine, 8; the "five relations," .. . 8	
Confucian College: once the highest educational institution in Japan . . . 12	
Confucianism, revival of, 7; its influence over the intellectual class . . . 7	
Continuation classes 96, 131	
Control, cost of 86	
Controlling Agencies 73	
Co-ordination of primary and secondary systems 133	
Cost of: agricultural schools, 314-316; direction, 86; educating a pupil, 31; Foreign Languages School, 388; higher schools, 215; living in Japan, 501; middle schools, 193, 195; normal schools, 472, 489; Sapporo School of Agriculture, 324; Universities . 238	
Council of education: its constitution and functions 76	
Courses of study: for the blind, 445; dumb, 446; in Academy of Commerce, Nagoya, 349; Agricultural College, Tokyo, 329, 330; Agricultural School, Sapporo, 321, 322; College of Literature, 246; Colleges, 227; Engineering, 286; Higher Commercial School, Tokyo, 352; Higher Schools, 206; Higher Schools for girls, 419; Law, 269; Medicine, 280; Provisional Training Institutions, 491; its length, 55; in middle schools, 57, 166; primary schools, 56. See also Curriculum.	
Cramming 72, 537	
Crops 309	
Cultivable land: its ratio to total area 304	
Curriculum, middle school, 167; primary (higher), 127; primary (ordinary), 125; comparison with Bombay, 130. See also Courses of study	
Curtis, Mr., on female education, 408; on the occupations of females . . . 409	

D

Daily life of students, 226	511
Daimyos, feudal lords	4, 10
Defectives: courses for the blind, 445; dumb, 446; graduates, 447; schools for the, 62, 390; at Kyoto, 443; Tokyo	444
Degrees: <i>Hakushi</i> the only recognised	234
Department of education described	74, 78
Direction of education, 49; its cost	86
Directors: of colleges, 221; normal schools, 488, 499; their functions	63

	Paragraphs
Discipline : in colleges, 225 ; higher schools, 205 ; middle schools, 163 ; schools	52, 115, 118
Districts, number of, 43 ; inspector's	84
Dockyards	361, 370 (4)
Doshisha : a mission institution, 390 ; its history	399
Double promotion, not allowed	121
Drawing, in middle schools, 178 ; primary schools	127
Dress, Academic, 226 ; of school boys and girls	118
Dumb, the : <i>See</i> Defectives.	
Dutch, the : their influence, 19 ; learning and military system introduced	20
Dyer, Mr. Henry : organized Engineering College, Tokyo	282, 284

E

Economics	60
Education in Japan : agricultural, 311 ; and Government Service, 40 ; compulsory, 50 ; dark age of, 3 ; fishery, 335 ; German influence on higher, 35 ; introduced from China, 3 ; organization, 45 ; pioneers of, 22, 27 ; progress, 36, 38, 78 ; public interest, 596 ; reforms of 1886, 37 ; state of education in 1872	33, 37
Educational : Code, its objects, 34 ; department, its formation in 1871, 1, 31 ; policy, its general aims, 39 ; rescript and code of 1872	32, 34
Elementary education : backwardness in the capital and the most important centres, 98 ; definition and objects, 94 ; its history	95
Emperor, apotheosis of	550
Engineering : College of, 60, 218, 282 ; courses of subjects in, 60 ; grouping by branches, 289 ; institutions, 283 ; Tokyo University College, organised by Professor H. Dyer of Glasgow, 282 ; College Staff, 285 ; course of study and examinations, 286 ; practical work neglected, 287 ; students and graduates	288
English : in colleges, 252, 253 ; Commercial schools, 356, composition and conversation in, 209 ; higher schools, 525 ; lower schools, 524 ; middle schools, 173 ; other schools, 526 ; primary schools, 128 ; specimens of Japanese English, 528, 529 ; specimens of English question papers, 252, 254 ; study of, 522 ; text-books, 173, 208 ; use of its study	523
Entrance examination : 5 ; papers of 1904 compared with those of Bombay	204
Eta : one of the lowest polluting castes in Japan	440
Examinations : 531-537 ; Civil Service, 531 ; College, 228 ; conducted by teachers themselves, 534 ; discouraged, 122, 533 ; diversity of practice, 182 ; frequently oral at the Universities, 65 ; high proportion of passes, 535 ; in College of Science, 261 ; engineering, 286 ; higher schools, 210-211 ; law, 270 ; medicine, 280 ; liberality in assigning marks, 65, 182 ; not held on a large scale as in India, 65 ; periodical school, 533 ; school entrance, 534 ; specimen of question papers	Appendix II

	Paragraphs
Expenditure: on apprentices' schools, 366; commercial schools, 347-350; education, 589; higher girls' schools, 423; objects of, 591; sources of, 590; statements of, Appendix III, Tables 27-30, 33; students' ...	511
Experimental farms	310, 319
Extraneous lectures	181

F

Factories: absence of factory laws in Japan, 362; ages of operatives in, 363; growth of, 362; working hours in ...	363
Farmers: conservatism of, 304; present condition, 306; separation from the <i>Samurai</i> or military class, 305; social status ...	305
Fees: average annual fee, per pupil, 32; in Agricultural College, Tokyo, 330, 331; Agricultural School, Sapporo, 324, 325; in Commercial Schools and Nagoya Academy, 346, 349, 357; in different grades of schools, 69; in Engineering Colleges, 288; in Foreign Languages School, 388; in Kindergarten schools, 93; in Law Colleges, 271, 272; in primary schools, 145; in public middle schools, 194; in Technical Schools, 296, 376, 379, 380; in Women's University, 425; not charged in Mercantile Marine Schools, Tokyo, 382; and in prefectural Industrial School, 370 (3, 9), remission in primary schools ...	69
Female education: 17; Mr. Fukuzawa's views on, 407; in former times, 403, new era, 406; present feelings towards, 408; spread of ...	95
Feudal organization in Japan, 10; abolished ...	30
Finance: incidence per head of population, 588; loans, 587; local, 586; national, 585; of primary schools, 144, 147; of public Kindergarten schools, 93; sources of expenditure in Japan and British India compared, 68; statements, Appendix III, Tables, 34-36. See also Cost and Expenditure.	
Fine Art school, 61, 387; at Tokyo ...	384
Fishery education, 335; schools ...	336
Food and drink of the Japanese ...	501, 538
Foreign: Languages School, 387, 388; staffs, tuition fee and cost, 388; professors in College of Engineering, Tokyo University, 284; Commercial School, Tokyo, 351; Kobe, 359; of law, 268; teachers, 502; and Japanese students, 505; condition of service, 504; how treated by the Japanese, 502; in higher schools, 214; insecurity of their tenure, 504; method of recruitment ...	503
Foreigners: as University professors, 235, 243; forbidden to enter Japan, 6; the Japanese jealousy and suspicion of ...	23
Forestry, 339; instruction in, 340; Morioka School of, 61; course of forestry in the College of Agriculture, Tokyo ...	340
Forests in Japan ...	339
Formosa, aborigines of ...	436
<i>Fu</i> : See <i>Ken</i> .	
Fukuzawa, Mr., a Japanese writer, 29; establishes the Keiogijiku institution, 392; his views on female education, 407; on religion, 549; influence and popularity of his writings ...	29

	Paragraphs
G	
<i>Gakushi</i> : a Japanese title equivalent to our Master's degree	59, 232
Geography	175
German : influence on education, 35 ; language	530
Girls : education, 54 ; higher schools for, 413-423 ; increase in their attendance, 101 ; industrial education for, 429 ; primary education, 411 ; schools, 390, 401, Tables 23 and 24 ; their school life	417
Glass factory	361
<i>Gouin's</i> method of teaching languages	524
Graduates : of higher schools, 213 ; of middle schools, 184 ; statistics of, 232 ; their career after graduation	184, 232
Graduation, 231 ; no examination in the Kyoto University for	231
Grant-in-aid : system, 48 ; to Technical Schools	302
Griffis, Dr., his description of a Provincial School of 1871, 25 ; invited to organise a polytechnic school, 25 ; on books studied by the Japanese women	403
Gulick, Mr., on the Japanese estimation of legal studies	264
<i>Gun</i> : a name for a rural district or county	43
Gymnastics, in primary schools	125, 127
H	
<i>Hakama</i> , a divided skirt worn by Japanese boys	115
<i>Hakushi</i> : a title corresponding to the Doctor's degree, 59, 233 ; only officially recognised title	234
Half-time schools	97
<i>Hannin</i> : is the rank of teachers appointed by the head of the department	191
Health of University students	229
Hearn, Mr. L., on apotheosis of the emperor, 550, on the condition of the <i>eta</i> , 441 ; on the discipline in normal schools, 462 ; on the relation between a teacher and his boys, 505 ; on the religious belief of students, 547 ; on the teaching of science in middle schools	177
<i>Heimin</i> : a commoner	40, 42
Herbart, his works popular in Japan	573
Higher education, Germany followed in the matter of	28, 35
Higher schools . 50 ; age of admission in, 202 ; boarding houses in, 200 ; buildings and equipment, 199 ; compared with Indian Arts Colleges, Appendix III, Table 15 ; courses of study in, 206 ; establishment and maintenance of, 197 ; examinations in, 210, 211 ; finance, 215 ; history of, 196 ; libraries in, 199 ; physical training in, 212 ; school- year and hours in, 201 ; scientific departments in, 199 ; teachers in, 214 ; text-books, 208 ; for girls, admission, 418 ; buildings, cost and equipment, 416 ; courses of study, 419 ; establishment, distribution and size, 414 ; finance, 423 ; graduation in, 421 ; his- tory of, 413 ; subjects, 420 ; supervision of, 415, teachers in	422
<i>Hinin</i> , a term applied to the lowest class of beggars and outlaws in Japan, literally "not men"	440

	Paragraphs
History : courses in, 248 ; how taught in primary schools, 127 ; Japanese, 256 ; text-books, ...	174
Holding, size of a ...	304
Holiday institutions : courses in, 492 ; departmental courses in ...	493
Home lessons ...	113
Hospitals : 278, excellent arrangements in ...	275
Hostels, Y. M. C. A. ...	567
Humanity, Japanese ...	550
Hygiene in schools, 67. See also School-hygiene.	
Ieyasu, a Japanese patron of learning ...	7
Imperial Library, 77 ; Universities ...	216-262
India, a Japanese view on the progress of, 549 ; and Japan compared, 593-596, analogies and contrasts in education, 594, 595 ; fundamental differences ...	593
Indian students in Japan, 376, advice to, 584, difficulties of, 581, expenditure of, 582 ; Japanese opinion about them, 583, number and occupation of ...	580
Industrial education institutions for, 61, 283, 364, 369, 370, 372, cost of industrial schools, 369, courses of study in schools, 61, 369, 370, institutions for training teachers, 377 ; schools for girls, 429, 430, subjects ...	296
Industries, 361 ; statistics of ...	363
Inspection, 49, Appendix III, Table, 9, cost of, 86 ; of schools ...	79
Inspectors, Chief, 80 ; district, 83, duties of, 75, 82, 85, 105 ; number and jurisdiction of, 75, 84 ; number of circles, 49, pay of, 80, 81, 83 ; prefectural, 81 ; qualification for the appointment of ...	75, 80, 81
Inspectresses, none in Japan ...	84
Institutions for general education, 54. See Colleges and Schools.	
Ito, Marquis, his views on religion, 548, starts an Engineering College in Tokyo ...	282
J	
Japanese, language, proposals for reforms, 520, scientific terms in, 518 : written and spoken, 517 ; letters, the Golden Age of, 2, writers, educational influence of ...	28
Jesuit schools ...	5
Jimmu Tenno, an early Japanese emperor ...	256
Jiu-jitsu, a kind of Japanese physical exercise ...	545
Judicial system in Japan ...	265
Judo : a modern name for jiu-jitsu ...	180, 540
Judges, salaries of ...	265
K	
Kagoshima, Girls' industrial school at ...	430
Kana, a name for Japanese syllabary ...	515
Keiojijik, a private University, 59, 390 ; its history and courses of study ...	392

	Paragraphs
<i>Ken</i> , a name for a division or prefecture	43
Keramics, 369, 370 ; school for	370 (7)
<i>Kimono</i> , ordinary dress worn by girls	116
Kindergarten, 55, 390, 459, Appendix III, Table 10 ; buildings and equipment, 90 ; courses of study in, 92 ; finance, 93 ; history of, 88 ; number of schools and infants, 56 ; size of a school, 89 ; teachers	91
Knapp, Mr., on commercial organization in Japan, 341 ; on social condition of farmers ...	305
Kobe ; Commercial school at, 61, 351 ; preparatory course in, 360 ; equipment, 359 ; Kindergarten at	89, 92
<i>Kojiki</i> ; " record of ancient matters "	2
<i>Koto</i> : a Japanese stringed musical instrument	443
Kuroda, General ; founder of the agricultural school at Sapporo	317
Kyoto : Imperial University at	59, 216, 262
Technical school at	380

L

Lacquer-work	366, 369, 370
Land-tax	309
Languages : low standard in, 211 ; studied by the Japanese	513
Law : borrowed from France and Germany, 264 ; Colleges, 266, 267 ; courses of study in, 269 ; examinations, 270 ; Mr. Gulick on the Japanese predilection for, 264 ; occu- pations of law graduates, 271 ; profession, 265 ; professors in colleges	268
Lectures, extraneous, in primary schools	132
Legal education	60
Lewis, Mr., on the percentage of school-going children in various countries	99
Libraries : in higher schools, 199 ; in normal schools	468
Public and Educational, 473 ; University	237
Licenses, for teachers	135, 452, 453
Literature : College of, 59, 218 ; courses in, 249 ; educational	574
Live stock	308
Loan scholarships	239
Local administration	44
Loyalty of the Japanese	5, 552

M

Management, class, 115 ; classification of schools by	46
Manners of the Japanese students	506, 554
Manual work, in primary schools	127
Manufacture	361
Marks, minimum required for class promotions, 165 ; leniency in giving	211
Marine, industries, 296 ; mercantile school at Tokyo	382
Marriage : age of, 405, 416 ; conditions of	410
Matches	293

	Paragraphs
Mathematics : course of study in middle schools	176
McCarter, Mr. D. B., helps to organize a normal school	27
Medical, College at Tokyo University, 278 ; courses of study and examinations, 280 ; the College Staff, 279 ; education, 60 ; profession, 274 ; schools and institutions, 276, 277 ; courses of study in, 277 ; their cost, 277 ; study, Germany followed, 273 ; its history, 273 ; training given by German doctors	27
Medicine, 60 ; Chinese system abandoned, 274 ; College of, 218 ; schools of, 387 ; students and graduates	281
Meiji, "enlightened rule"	18
Metallurgy	291
Metaphysics	250
Middle schools, 390, Tables 13 and 14 ; age of admission, 166 ; buildings of, 155 ; courses of study in, 166, 167 ; curriculum compared with that of Bombay, 169 ; distribution and size of, 150 ; drawing in, 178 ; English in, 173 ; equipment of, 156 ; establishment of, 151 ; fees in, 194 ; finance of, 193 ; history of, 149 ; law and political economy in, 178 ; mathematics in, 176 ; morals in, 171 ; number and strength of, 151 ; physical training in, 180 ; popularity of, 150 ; privileges of pupils and graduates, 183 ; science in, 177 ; singing in, 178 ; subjects of study in, 57 ; teachers in, 187 ; time-table	168
Migrations : of boys, 162 ; of teachers	190, 498
Military, discipline in schools, 64 ; drill and field exercise in higher schools, 205 ; drill compulsory in middle schools, 180 ; service postponed in the case of middle school students	183
Mining, 369 ; industry	291
Miscellaneous schools	389, 390
Missionaries, persecuted by Hideyoshi	6
Mission schools, 186, 394 ; examples of, 398 ; religious difficulties in, 395 ; religious teaching in, 396 ; value of, 400 ; weakness in	397
Models : botanical, etc., 109 ; of warships... ..	109
Morality : in Japan, 551 ; students' ideals of	555
Morals : basis of teaching, 557 ; influence of the West on, 556 ; Imperial rescript on, 558 ; middle course in, 563 ; other agencies for teaching, 566 ; primary course in, 560, 561 ; teaching of, in middle schools, 171 ; in primary schools, 125 ; text-books on, 560 ; review of text-books, 562 ; specimen lesson on	564
Moral training : instructions for, 559 ; its value	565
Mori, Mr. A., his educational reforms, 37 ; Minister for Education	37
Morioka School of Agriculture, 61, 311 ; course of forestry in, 340, description of, 311 ; veterinary instruction in	338
Moxa : the fibres of a certain plant made into a small cone and burnt on the skin as a popular medicine for certain diseases	274
Murray, Mr. D., Superintendent of Education in Japan (1872)	27
Museums, 260, 319, 328 ; attached to schools, 109 ; educational, 572 ; medical	278
Music, Academy of, at Tokyo	61

N		Paragraphs
Nagoya : commercial academy at, 349 ; courses of study in	...	349
Narura, Mr., founder of Japan Women's University	...	225
Nature study	...	147
Nautical, education, 61 ; schools	...	381
Naval, architecture, 290 ; schools and colleges	...	61
Neesima, Mr., a Japanese Christian and founder of the Doshisha Institution	...	399
New Government	...	18
Night-schools	...	96, 346
<i>Nihongi</i> , chronicles of Japan	...	2
Nobles, schools for, 432, 433. <i>See also</i> Peers' school.	...	4
Nobunaga, a Japanese statesman	...	4
Normal schools, 63, 434 ; admission of candidates, rules for, 461 ; buildings and equipment, 457 ; boarding houses, 458 ; courses of study for women, 465 ; daily life of students in, 462 ; establishment and supervision, 456 ; examinations and graduation, 466 ; history, strength and cost of, 455, 471 ; hygiene in, 467 ; libraries 468 ; organization of, 460 ; practical training in, 464 ; subjects of study in, 463 ; teachers, their qualification, pay and pension, 470, 471 ; higher, admission, rules for, 476 ; buildings and equipment, 474 ; courses of study in, 478, 480 ; curricula for females, 483 ; for males, 479 ; examinations in, 482 ; finance, 489 ; history of, 473 ; practising schools, attached to, 475 ; school hygiene, 468 ; school life in, 477 ; staff, 487 ; students and graduates 485 ; subjects of study in, 481 ; teachers' pay and pension	...	488
Nurses	...	275
O		
Observatory	...	77
Okuma, Count, on the Japanese industries, 361 ; on the lack of a moral standard	...	557
Osaka, Higher Technical School : organisation and cost, 378 ; students and graduates	...	379
Outcast classes, 440 ; education of, 441 ; weakening of prejudice against	...	442
P		
Patriotism of the Japanese	...	552
Pay, of teachers in higher schools, 214, in secondary schools, 291. <i>See also</i> Salary.	...	250
Pedagogics	...	250
Peers' school, 432 ; its organization, 434 ; school for Peeresses	...	435
Pensions of teachers in middle schools, 192 ; normal schools, 488 ; primary schools	...	141
Phallic worship, suppressed	...	556
Philosophy, courses in, 247, 250 ; question paper in	...	251
Physical, condition of pupils, 67 ; training in higher schools, 212 ; middle schools, 180 ; schools	...	538-543
Pinto, Mendez, discovered Japan in 1542	...	4
Political economy in middle schools	...	178
Politics	...	60

INDEX.

519

	Paragraphs
Poor children, special schools for	119
Population of Japan,	42
Post-graduate studies in University Hall	233
Practising schools, 459, 475; training in	464
Presidents of Universities	219
Primary, course, two stages of	120
education, 56; Americans followed in the case of, 28, 35; made compulsory in 1890, 38; of girls	411
schools: 134, Appendix III, Tables 11 and 12; co-education in, 123; curricula compared with the Bombay system, 130; donations to, 146; establishment and maintenance of, 98; expenditure on, 146, grades of, 96; obligatory attendance of children in, 99; subjects taught in, 124, 125-129; teachers	134
Private schools: classes of, 390, control of, 47; their relations to Government	391
Privileges of students in middle schools	183
Prizes	118, 532
Products	307
Professional education, 60, 203, compared with India	Table 21
Professors: <i>See</i> Teachers.	
Progress of education due to steady and hard work	102
Promotions, class, settled by teachers and not by annual examinations	122
Pronunciation of English words by the Japanese	529
Provincial school, first organised at Fuku, 24; description of a, 25; relic of feudalism in	26
Public rewards, discouraged	70
Punishments, 118, recognized in middle school	163
Pupils, by sexes, Appendix III, Table 6, their proportion to total population	Table 3

R

Recognition of schools, 154, rules for the	Appendix I
Reformatories	450
Reforms, contemplated	72
Religion, attitude of leaders to, 548, in schools	549
Religious training	546-567
Rice, the staple article of food	501

S

<i>Sake</i> , an alcoholic drink prepared from rice	538
Salary, additional for long service, 140; of primary teachers, 139; other teachers, 500. <i>See also</i> Pay.	
<i>Samurai</i> , the official and military class, 10, masters of the four classes, 11; schools for	14
Sanskrit	255

	Paragraphs.
Sapporo School of Agriculture, 60, 311; courses of study in, 321, 322; examinations, 323; finance, 324; history of, 317; organization of, 320; staff and equipment in, 319; Veterinary instruction in, 338; what it has done.	28
<i>Satsuma</i> , a leading clan in Japan	107
Scholarships, 118, 532; absence of, 194; college and University, 239; for students sent abroad, 578; paucity of, 70; usually of the nature of a loan.	70
Schools, adequacy of, 103; and teachers by management, Appendix III, Table 4; by class, Table 5; books, 142; buildings, description of, 515; cost of, 110, 157; equipment of, 109, 157; high school, 199; Kindergarten, 99; normal school, 457; primary, 106; secondary or middle, 155, 157; sites of, 107; classified according to managing agencies, 46; commercial, 342-358; fishery, 336; for the aborigines / 2; backward classes, 62; defectives, 62; <i>Samurai</i> , 14, 95; sons of nobility, 62; funds of, 592; hours in higher schools, 201; middle schools, 159; hygiene, 143, 185, 467, 486, 544, 545; interconnection of, 71; in the feudal period, 12; number of, 46; organization of, 160; religious teaching in, 549; single classed, 117; size of, 104; school year, 99, 112; in higher schools, 201; middle schools, 159; <i>terakoya</i> ...	13, 95
Science: College of, 218; course of study in, 177, 259; in primary schools ...	127
Scientific apparatus in middle schools ...	156
Scott, Mr., assists in organizing the normal and primary schools ...	27
Secondary education, 57; of girls, 412; institutions for, 148. See also Middle Schools	
Sericulture, 101, 332; effects of, 332; instruction in ...	333
Seismological observatory ...	260
Self-help among students ...	512
<i>Sen</i> , a Japanese coin equivalent to one quarter anna.	
<i>Sensei</i> , a teacher.	
Sewing ...	127
Shinshu University ...	390
<i>Shinto</i> : the indigenous religion of Japan, 2, 546; conflict between it and Buddhism ...	4
Ship-building ...	366, 368
<i>Shisoku</i> : a modern name for the <i>Samurai</i> ...	40, 42, 370 (9)
<i>Shogun</i> : a Japanese title meaning "barbarian-subduing Commander-in-Chief," 6; downfall of the Shogunate ...	18
Short-hand: not taught in the Commercial Schools of Japan ...	345
Silk industry ...	332, 361
Singing: in middle schools, 178; primary schools ...	127
Societies: agricultural, 310; literary and scientific, 227. See also Associations.	
<i>Sonin</i> , the rank of teachers appointed by the Premier ...	191
<i>Soshi</i> , a class of political rowdies ...	40, 506
<i>Soy</i> , a kind of Japanese sauce.	
Special classes, education of, 431 <i>et seq</i> ; schools, 62, 387, 390; by management, Table 22; for poor children ...	119
Spencer, Mr. Herbert, his philosophy most popular in Japan ...	573
Sports, 150, 541; and games of University students ...	29
Strikes of students, 211, 510; in middle schools ...	164

Paragraphs

Students : associations of, 543 ; daily life and expenditure of ...	511
<i>esprit de corps</i> of, 509 ; High School, 213 ; Indian and, Japanese compared, 536, 539 ; intellectual qualities of, 507 ; life in a University described, 226 ; manners of, 506 ; moral ideals of, 555 ; number and description of, 64 ; physique of, 539 ; self-help, 512 ; strikes, 510 ; truthfulness ...	508
Students, the sending of, abroad, 577 ; features of the system, 578 ; its results	579
Suicide, common in old Japan	556
Supervision of middle schools, 153 ; primary schools	105
Sureties : for children in primary schools, 119 ; for college students	224

T

Taine, M., his English literature popular in Japan	573
Tanaka, Viscount, the educational member of the World Embassy of 1871	31
Teachers, 451, <i>et seq.</i> ; appointment of, 136, 138, migration of, 493 ; number of, 63, Table 25 ; pay of, 139, 500, pensions of, 141, 192, proportion of female, 497 ; public estimation of, 493, qualifications of, 135, work and length of service of	137
foreign, in Japan	21, 173
Higher school, 214, in higher school for girls, 424, pay of	214
Kindergarten school	9
licenses, primary school, 452, qualifications for, 452, 455, secondary school	453
middle school, 187, qualification of, 189, salary of, 191 ; their work, 189 ; primary school	134
licenses, primary school, 452, qualifications for, 452, 455, secondary school	453
Technical school	300
trained, 26, Table 25, early difficulty about, 23, for defectives, 448, institutions for training	454
University, 235 ; their pay	236
Technical, education, 61, grades and institutions	295
history of, 292 ; statistics	292
Inspection	85
Technical, Schools, 60, 61, 283, 364, 390, by class, Tables 19 and 20, co-ordination with local pursuits, 293, courses of study in, 365, establishment of, 294, expenditure on, 296, 297, 298, 301, grants-in-aid to, 300, by management, Table 18 ; Kyoto, 380 ; Osaka, 378, subjects, 296, supplementary, 296, 365 ; teachers in, 300 ; Tokyo	373
Tenjin : the Japanese patron deity of writing	125
Terakoya : a common name for primary schools, 3, 12, 342 ; described	13
Text-books, 575 ; rules for the examination of	576
higher school	208
on morals, 560 ; review of	562

primary school, 66 ; issued by the Department in Japan	...	Paragraphs	66
Universities, prescribe no text-books	66
Time-tables, 129 ; in middle schools, 168 ; specimens of	...	Appendix IV	
Tokugawa : name of a Japanese dynasty	6
Tokyo : Academy of music ;			
Girls' industrial school	429
higher commercial school, courses of study in, 354, 355 ; history of, 351 ;			
organization of, 353 ; staff and equipment, 352 ; students and graduates	357
higher technical school, courses of study in, 375 ; its history, 373 ; staff and			
equipment	374
students and graduates	376
University of, 24, 59, 216, Table 17 ; buildings and equipment, 241 ; its			
history	240
Towns, number of	43
Training, in the Samurai schools	15
institutes, for commercial teachers, 358 ; industrial teachers, 377 ; provisional,			
490. See also Normal Schools.			
Transfer rules	102
Type-writing, not taught in commercial schools of Japan	345

U

University : Doshisha, 390 ; Kyoto, 262 <i>et seq</i> ; originally a school for turning out			
Government officials, 40 ; Shinshu, 390 ; Tokyo, 240, <i>et seq</i> ; women,			
54, 59, 216, 390. See also Doshisha, Kyoto, etc.			
Council, 220 ; its functions	220
Hall	233, 262, 331
students, health of, 229 ; their sports and games	229
Universities : 59, Table 16 ; buildings and equipment of, 241 ; finance, 238 ; history			
of, 217 ; objects of, 216 ; organization of, 219 ; presidents of, 219 ; qualifications of			
candidates for admission	223

V

Vacations and holidays	112
Verbeck, Mr. G. F., foremost pioneer of education in Japan, 22 ; his connection with			
the Tokyo University, 240 ; his help in the organization of the Peers' school, 432 ; his			
part in the rise of Japan, 22 ; retired from public service	27
Vernacular readers	172
Veterinary science, 337 ; instruction in	338
Villages, number of	43

W

Wages, 309, 362 ; of artisans, 501 ; of girls in factories, 409 ; of operatives in			
factories	363

INDEX.

523

	Paragraphs
Walking, as an exercise	542
Waseda ; private university, 59, 226, 390, its history	393
Weaving	363, 366, 373
Western influence in Japan	556
Widow-remarriage	405
Women : course of study in normal schools for, 465, 483 ; former education of, 403 ; former position in Japan, 402 ; marriageable age of, 405 ; present status of, 409 ; the " three obediences "	404
Women's university, 54, 390 ; courses of study in, 438 ; its history, 425 , preparatory courses in, 427 ; staff	426
Woollen factory	321
World's Embassy of 1871	31
Writing, Japanese, difficulty of the	516
X	
Xavier, lands in Japan	4
Y	
Yoshiki : the " town-quarters " of the Daimyos	30
Year, academic	53
Yen, a silver coin equivalent to 2 shillings.	
Z	
Zoological collections in higher schools	199
Zoshikwan - a military training school	197

